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MILITARY AFFAIRS AND PUBLIC SECURITY

TRIAL IN HO CHI MINH CITY RESULTS IN HEAVY PENALTIES FOR ACCUSED

Hanoi QUAN DOI NHAN DAN in Vietnamese 10 Feb 80 p 4

[Article: "Ho Chi Minh City Tries Nguyen Thi Tuyet Minh and Accomplices for Malfeasance, Abuse of Authority, Embezzlement, Economic Specualtion and Bribery"]

[Text] VNA—The Ho Chi Minh City People's Court recently opened a trial in the first instance of Nguyen Thi Tuyet Minh, former director of the Federation of Leather Shoe Enterprises, and accomplices Tran Thi Van Anh, Tuyet Minh's sister-in-law who was on the staff of the enterprise; Le Van Tuyen, a bourgeoisie; Pham Thi An, Tuyen's wife; and Nguyen Van Tin, a legal cadre from the Ministry of Interior, for the crimes of malfeasance, abuse of authority, embezzlement, economic specualtion and bribery.

Following complete liberation of the south, Nguyen Thi Tuyet Minh was assigned responsibility over installations producing leather shoes and was assigned director of the leather shoe federation. Tuyet Minh took advantage of this position, in collusion with the bourgeoisie Le Van Tuyen, to alter account books, prepare false documentation, etc., in order to withdraw more than 41,862 dong provided by the state. Tuyet Minh also had many other deceitful methods such as: together with her accomplices prepering false loan documents then directing issuance of cash for payment, called money for processing goods; together with Tran Thi Van Anh arbitrarily raising the price of cloth supplied to workers, collecting in excess of 6,661 dong; twice stealing 4,837 meters of cloth for speculation by the girls, obtaining more than 10,000 dong in profit; declaring 1,069 more workers and civil servants in order to receive extra amounts of key commodities consisting of 531 kilograms of sugar, 3,768 cans of milk, 51 kilograms of flour, 8,786 packs of cigarettes and many other types of goods for speculative sale, resulting in profits of more than 6,000 dong.

Tuyet Minh also set up three unlawful funds for illegal income, impinging upon the enterprise's business capital, and wrongfully used principles. Expenditures for liaison, guests and meetings alone reached 35,000 dong. In the enterprise's 1976 final accounting, Tuyet Minh advocated retaining some of the profit which rightfully should have been put in the state budget -- 2,820,000 dong.

Tuyet Minh also made it possible for the bourgeoisie Tuyen to increase the cost of raw materials in storage, thereby increasing the value 40,315 dong, and set up seven loan accounts to balance the amount. By paying old loans, Tuyen withdrew 61,831 dong, almost equal to the amount of liquid assets he had offered up.

Learning of these maleficences, the men and women workers courageously struggled against Tuyet Minh and her accomplices and, at the same time, reported to higher authorities and responsible agencies. Tuyet Minh took advantage of her position as director and sought out many ways to abuse, intimidate, fire and even threaten the lives of many workers. Relying on the position and a number of people who had been bought off in the enterprise, Tuyet Minh caused many difficulties during the course of the investigation by state agencies.

Nguyen Van Tin, the legal cadre who was assigned to interrogate Tuyet Minh, accepted a bribe of 20 ounces of gold from Minh to help her refute the case.

Thus, Tuyet Minh together with her accomplices, took advantage of loopholes in the mangement of the enterprise's operations, colluded with the bourgeoisie, embezzled, engaged in economic speculation, bribed cadres, seriously violated state lines and policies, made it possible for the bourgeoisie to avoid reform, undermined the enterprise, violated socialist property, and created conditions for a number of cadres to embezzle and steal state property.

Faced with the incontrovertible evidence, Tuyet Minh and her accomplices had to confess to the crimes. The Ho Chi Minh City People's Court sentenced: Nguyen Thi Tuyet Minh to 18 years imprisonment; Nguyen Van Tin to 15 years imprisonment; Le Van Tuyen to 13 years imprisonment; Tran Thi Van Anh to 5 years imprisonment; and Pham Thi An and Nguyen Thi Tam to 3 years suspended sentence.

6915
CSO: 4209

MILITARY AFFAIRS AND PUBLIC SECURITY

RECRUITMENT DRIVE UNDER WAY IN AN GIANG PROVINCE

Hanoi QUAN DOI NHAN DAN in Vietnamese 10 Feb 80 p 1

/Article: "An Giang Carries Out 1980 Recruiting"/

/Text/ VNA--Striving to complete the first quarter of 1980 recruiting norm during February, the An Giang provincial military headquarters has organized and guided localities and units to satisfactorily perform military registration and hold village, hamlet and ward cadre training classes concerning the draft and preparing records, certification and so on.

So far, more than 62,000 youths in the prescribed category and age group throughout the province are registering for the 1980 draft. The towns of Long Xuyen and Chau Doc, and many villages and wards in the province had between 95 and 100 percent of the youths in the age group registered during the prescribed period.

Draft councils for the localities have quickly established and certified personal history records for the youths in the age group with a view to ensuring correct implementation of the party and state policy and ensuring quality in building the army, reasonable and correct objectives and sufficient conditions prior to physical exams and the call for induction.

6915
CSO: 4209

CRACKDOWN ON SPECULATORS URGED

Hanoi HANOI MOI in Vietnamese 11 Feb 80 p 4

["A Story a Day" Column by Nguoi Xay Dung, The Builder: "This Is a Good Opportunity to Crack Down With More Force"]

[Text] Taking advantage of the promulgation of policies encouraging the production of consumption and export goods, a number of people have deliberately taken it to mean that "one is now free to do business as one likes" and so they now are out for the big kill. From the third quarter to the end of the year, in the Hoan Kiem subdivision alone there have appeared 500 new merchants entering the market. As for the small merchants who had been in business before, the majority of them also enlarged their activities, dealing now even with commodities that normally belong to the State monopoly.

On the other hand, market management seems to have been stopped on its track. The reason is that a number of responsible persons have not yet mastered the new policies and, having been criticized for having done something wrong, they have retracted and dare not do anything any longer. It goes without saying that such a negative attitude is incorrect and is in need of being corrected.

In expressing its new determination, recently the market management team of the Hoan Kiem subdivision has had a surge of activities and in a few days at the end of January has uncovered many illegal trades involving a relatively large volume of goods. Nguyen Thi H., a fruit merchant in Bac Qua Market, is found to hoard in her home 430 bags of 500 gram soap powder. Nguyen Thi B. on Hang Duong Street has 277 boxes of firecrackers and 11,20 strings of them in her home. Tran Van M. on Dao Duy Tu Street is found to have over 200 kilograms of moth balls, which he declares to have hoarded for a Mrs. Q. who in turn is uncovered to have almost 1 ton of anise seed in her home--which is an export commodity.

It is right what the market management team of the Hoan Kiem subdivision just did. It is our opinion that the other subdivisions and outlying districts should also take advantage of this "year end" to work harder in order to contribute towards protecting the State materials and commodities as well as towards stabilizing the market prices.

1751
CSO: 4209

DISCIPLINED STORE KEEPER BECOMES STORE KEEPER AGAIN

Hanoi HANOI MOI in Vietnamese 23 Jan 80 p 4

["A Story a Day" Column by Nguoi Xay Dung, The Builder: "Disciplined Store Keeper Becomes Store Keeper Again"]

[Text] Nguyen Thi Lan, store keeper of the Office of Provisions, District of Gia Lam, is used to fancy clothing and expensive taste in her consumption. Many people have been struck by the out-of-the-ordinary lifestyle of Thi Lan. Their suspicions are not without reason. Thi Lan has... seriously infringed upon the socialist property: in December 1978, upon discovery by the store inventory office that Thi Lan had 1,400 kilograms of food and provisions transfered and "unaccounted for," the Council of Discipline of the provisions office decided that Thi Lan would have to reimburse to the office the amount that was lost to the tune of 1.2 dong per kilogram and that 5 dong per month would be taken off her monthly salary. The people around had their question: Why is it that the market price for a one-kilogram coupon is 2.5 dong and yet the Office only charges her 1.2 dong per kilogram?

After being "disciplined," Thi Lan was transferred to the Gia Lam town store to be store keeper there from January 1979 on.

On 9 November 1979, the security forces caught redhanded the two named Nguyen Van Son and Nguyen Van Hoi trying to sell 250 kilograms of wheat meal categories 1. They declared that this wheat meal had been given them by Thi Lan to sell. The store that Thi Lan was in charge was immediately inventoried and it was found to be short of 4.572 kilograms of wheat meal (leaving aside the question of rice and somen missing). A report has been filed at once by the main store of this "loss"!

Stealing from the socialist property, the gang has been caught redhanded. Tneir crime is about as clear as can be, yet Thi Lan is still untouched by the law, she only has to pay 5 dong per month to "conform to the regulations"!

In retelling this story, The Builder has two proposals to make:

One is that the legal bodies, concretely the People's Procurate of the District of Gia Lam, review and deal with this case in accordance with the law.

Two is that the Gia Lam Office of Provisions draw a lesson from this experience in their use of personnel. A store keeper who steals is made store keeper elsewhere in order to steal again... The Thi Nhan case at the Hai Ba Trung Office of Provisions is still within recent memory. What kind of discipline is that when one only gets mud from one pond and puts it in another? How can we fight negative phenomena in this fashion?

1751
CSO: 4209

ARTICLE DISCUSSES CONVERSION OF INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC DATA

Hanoi NGHIEN CUU KINH TE [ECONOMIC STUDIES] in Vietnamese No 6, Dec 79 pp 72-79

[Article by Nguyen Quan: "The International Comparison of Economic Norms"]

[Text] Together with the development of the national economy of our country over the past several years has been the rapid development of our economic relations with the other countries of the world. Our country's joining the United Nations and many of the organizations of the United Nations and joining CEMA and many of its organizations, the promulgation by our country of the "Investment Law" so that foreign countries can invest capital, equipment and technology together with the increasing need to improve economic planning and management, improve research activities and instruction at schools and so forth demand that we make increasing use of much economic data of other countries and international organizations and vice versa.

Regardless of how specific the purpose might be, when using economic data of other countries and even of our own country, it is first of all necessary to understand the contents, scope, method of calculation and unit of calculation of these economic norms; once this has been accomplished, the necessary conversions can be made in order to comply with the principles on the comparison of economic norms. However, because the economic norms of each country are computed in a manner that reflects the nature of the mode of production, the level of development of production, national characteristics and the level of economic management of the country, using economic norms becomes a complex matter.

Product Norms Computed In Kind

One cannot simply compare the in kind norms of a number of products of various countries because the products of each country have different qualitative standards and specifications, different units of calculation, etc. For example, 85 countries in the world (including our country and the socialist countries) include the electricity consumed within electric power

plants as part of the output of electricity; however, 80 other countries only include the electricity transmitted from the power plant, that is, they do not include the electricity used to meet the needs of the power plant itself or the electricity lost in permanent transformers or only include the amount of electricity consumed or sold, etc. Therefore, when using data on the electric power output of a foreign country or supplying data on the electric power output of our country to another country, we must know how that country computes its electric power output and the breakdown of the country's electric power output by energy source in order to recompute this data. With regard to glass, some countries compute output in square meters, some in crates and some in tons; in addition, there are thick and thin types of glass. There are very many different types of cloth: in terms of raw materials, there are cloths produced from cotton fiber, from synthetic fibers and so forth; some countries compute cloth output in meters, some in square meters and some in tons. In terms of hardness, there are many different types of pressed fiberboard: medium hard, hard and very hard, with different degrees of thickness(1); some countries, compute output in square meters, but some compute output in cubic meters or, as the UN does (FAO), divide pressed board output into hard types and non-hard types (used as an electric insulating material). Under the method employed by CEMA, vehicle tires include the various types of tires for automobiles, tractors, agricultural machines, road construction machinery and motorcycles; under the method employed by the Office of Statistics of the UN, they only include automobile and truck tires; however, in Italy, tires include tires for motorcycles and the other types of vehicles; in our country, they include automobile tires and tubes and are computed by set (one tube, one tire and one tire liner). These few examples show the complex nature of comparing the in kind product norms of different countries and international organizations. To compute these norms with relative accuracy, our country must draw up product lists, determine the names of those products that must be compared in terms of quality, specifications, raw materials (energy), method of production and unit of measure (actual and estimated) to each type product of concerned countries and organizations and determine the necessary coefficient of conversion or, through explanatory notes, clearly define the methods of computation of other countries so that persons working with these figures know how to apply them (this is the method frequently employed by the UN Office of Statistics). On the other hand, we can take advantage of the information in charts: the methods of making international comparisons of the statistical data of the CEMA member countries with the statistical data of the capitalist countries concerning the production of a number of products and computed in kind (46 types of industrial goods), which were promulgated in September 1971, serve as a basis to be referred to and used when making comparisons with data of our country.

The Breakdown of the National Economy into Sectors

Dividing the national economy into sectors is very necessary in researching the relationships among the various economic sectors in terms of labor,

investments, fixed assets, liquid assets, output value, wages and so forth for the formulation of the national economic development plan, the inspection of this plan's implementation, the calculation of the various national economic balances and the establishment of the norms on economic returns (returns from invested capital, returns from the use of capital, labor productivity and so forth) for each sector and for comparison with the sectors of related countries. It is impossible to avoid shortcomings when researching the economic norms of other countries and our country as well without knowing the structure of economic sectors during each stage.

The sector structure of the national economy of each country depends upon the level of development of production and the division of social labor of the country during each stage. The placing of a production, business, support or other unit in a production or non-production sector depends upon economic viewpoint, upon the mode of production of each country, consequently, learning the specific breakdown of the national economic sectors of our country and the countries that we must research is extremely important and difficult as well.

Basically, the breakdown of economic sectors in the socialist countries is the same because these economies have been built on the basis of Marxist-Leninist theory on social reproduction; however, because the specific conditions of the economic development of each country differ, the breakdown of economic sectors within each country is marked by special characteristics. For this reason, CEMA adopted a national economic sectors chart in September 1966 with a view toward insuring the comparative nature of statistical data and cooperation and mutual assistance programs among its member countries, especially the countries receiving assistance and cooperation under an integrated program (such as Mongolia, Cuba and Vietnam)(see: the economic sectors chart).

Economic Sectors Chart

CEMA	USSR	Vietnam(2)
1. Material production.		
-Industry	-Industry	-Industry
-Building	-Agriculture	-Building
-Agriculture	-Forestry	-Agricutture,Forestry
-Forestry	-Transportation	-Commerce and Supply
-Transportation(including passenger transportation)	-Posts-Telegraph	-Communications-Transportation, Post-Telegraph
-Post-Telegraph(including non production support)	-Building	-Other Material Production
-Commerce, Material-Technical Supply and Purchases	-Commerce, Material-Technical Supply and Purchases	

CEMA	USSR	Vietnam
2. Non-Material Production.		
-Housing, Public and Personal Services	-Public Services, Personal Services, Housing	-State Credit, Insurance
-Science and Scientific Support	-Public Health, Physical Education and Sports, Social Security	-Public Services and Services Supporting Daily Life
-Education, Culture, Art	-Education, Culture, Art	-Scientific Research, Education, Physical Education and Sports, Public Health and Social Work
-Public Health, Social Security, Physical Education and Sports	-Science and Scientific Research	-Agencies Managing the State, Party and Mass Organizations
-Finance, Credit, Insurance	-The State Organization, Consumer Cooperatives, Social Organizations	
-Management	-The Other Sectors	

From this chart, we see differences and similarities in the breakdown of economic sectors of Vietnam, the USSR and CEMA. The most notable difference is that for the USSR and Vietnam (including Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria), transportation only consists of cargo transportation and posts-telegraph services in support of production while CEMA (including Poland, Hungary and the GDR) includes passenger transportation and posts-telegraph services for the people. One of the reasons for the inclusion of passenger transportation and post-telegraph services for the people in the material production sector is to facilitate cost accounting (because it is truly difficult to divide locomotives, railroad lines, railroad stations and so forth as well as station personnel and train engineers into the production or non-production sector; the same holds true for the posts-telegraph sector). According to the sector chart of CEMA, the field of material production only includes cargo transportation and posts-telegraph services in support of the production sectors; however, to enable a full comparison of the data of member countries, passenger transportation and posts-telegraph services for the people should also be included in material production. The sector charts of CEMA and member countries also differ in certain ways due to national characteristics in the division of social labor and the level of specialization of production in each country. For example, CEMA divides level I industry into 16 level II industrial sectors, the USSR divides it into 10 level II industrial sectors and Vietnam divides it into 9 level II industrial sectors.(*)

We usually divide industry into two groups: Group A(the production of instruments of production) and Group B(the production of consumer goods). CEMA, Vietnam, the USSR, Poland, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Romania divide industry into Group A and Group B, while Hungary and the GDR do not. However, even those countries that do divide their industry into two groups have not established very uniform principles for putting sectors into

these groups. For example, the principle employed by the USSR is the practical use of the product; the principle employed by Poland is the primary use of each type product; Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria employ the principle of the primary use of the products of each enterprise; Romania employs the principle of the primary use of the products of the enterprise and the primary use of each product; in our country, we primarily use the enterprise as a unit of the group. The primary principle for placing an enterprise within a group is whether the majority of its output is instruments of production or instruments of consumption; however, some sectors, due to the requirements of their work, are placed within a group based on the economic use of their product. For this reason, there is no uniformity of data on Groups A and B in the total output value of industry.

The economic sector charts of the non-socialist countries are far different than those of the socialist countries. Because, the non-socialist countries do not base their charts on the role of each sector in creating the social product or the other needs of society (for example, culture, education, public health, management and so forth), but on the position that each sector is a functional system insuring the production of commodities and the performance of support work. As a result, the sector charts of these countries do not distinguish between material production and non-material production nor do they clearly distinguish among the various sectors. For example, agriculture and forestry include the harvesting of timber, pisciculture, fishing and hunting; to be correct, however, ocean fishing and the harvesting of timber should be placed in industry.

Below is the international standard economic sector chart adopted by the Statistics Committee of the UN in January 1969:

Sector(3)	Number			
	Subsector	Group	Subgroup	Total
I. Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry, Pisciculture and Fishing	3	6	7	16
II. The Mining Industry	4	4	8	16
III. Manufacturing Industry	9	29	78	116
IV. Electric Power, Natural Gas, Water	2	2	4	8
V. Construction	1	1	1	3
VI. Commerce, Wholesale Sales, Retail Sales, Warehouses, Restaurants and Hotels	3	4	4	11
VII. Transportation, Warehouses, Posts-Telegraph	2	5	13	20
VIII. Finances, Insurance, Real Estate Related Services and Commercial Services	3	5	12	20
IX. Public Services, Social Services and Personal Services	6	15	28	49
X. Other Forms of Activity That Cannot Be Precisely Defined	1			1
Total	34	71	155	260

As a result, when researching the structure of the labor force, of investment capital, of fixed or liquid assets, of the gross social product and national income by economic sector, we must first rearrange the economic sectors so that they are uniform before we can compare them.

Labor and Wages

The labor norms we usually employ are: the number of laborers of stipulated age as they are distributed within the national economy, the number of persons of work age who are able to work (that is, excluding those who are unable to work) and the number of manual workers and office workers.

With regard to the first two norms, the data of all countries can be used because the structure of these norms is, generally speaking, similar, attention need only be given to the variations in work age within a number of countries. In our country, work age is defined as 16 to 60 years of age for men and 16 to 55 years of age for women; however, there are also countries in which the work age is 15 to 65 years of age for men and 15 to 60 years of age for women.

The manual worker-office worker norm can only be used to make comparisons within the scope of the socialist countries. (In the capitalist countries, the primary norm is labor working for hire for private individuals. In our country, this norm only includes persons who work for the state; these persons are defined on the basis of the amount of time spent working for the state, are paid by the state under a specific wage system and are divided into two types: persons on the work roster within the state sector and persons who routinely work for the state. In a number of CEMA member countries, manual workers and civil servants consist of persons who have stable incomes in the form of salaries or wages because they participate in the process of social activities. As a result, manual workers and civil servants primarily consist of persons who work for and are paid by the state and persons who work in the collective economy (but are paid under a specific system immediately after their work is completed without having to wait until the end of a season or production year, as is the case at an agricultural cooperative, a harvest, as is the case in a fishing cooperative, or the completion of a stage of production or business, as is the case in an artisan and handicraft cooperative). For example, in the book "The National Economies of the CEMA member countries, 1978," which was published in 1979, in Hungary, the GDR, Poland and Czechoslovakia, the total number of manual workers and civil servants includes the persons working for the state, cooperatives and private individuals; in Bulgaria, Romania and the USSR, the total number of manual workers and civil servants is the number of persons who work for the state and cooperatives. However, all of these countries only include the labor working within a number of cooperatives and individuals that meet the conditions mentioned above.

As a result, we can only compare labor norms within the work roster in the state sector of our country with the number of manual workers and civil servants working within the state sectors of the CEMA member countries.

wage norms: in our country and the socialist countries, wages are the form of payment to those persons who work for the state (agencies at enterprises) whereby a portion of national income is distributed in the form of money by the state to manual workers and civil servants to compensate for the necessary labor expended by them, distributed in a manner consistent with the law of distribution in accordance with labor. However, wage levels vary among the socialist countries due to differences in the labor productivity of these countries and the specific policies regarding the distribution of national income in these countries du ing each period of time.(4) When comparing the wages of various countries, it is not only necessary to take these differences into consideration, but also necessary to convert wages into a common currency.

In the non-socialist countries, wages are the monetary expression of the value of labor or the price of labor, even though bourgeois circles in these countries call "wages a bonus commensurate with the time worked or the work performed for laborers in accordance with the labor contract."(5)

Due to this essential difference(6), it is necessary, when directly comparing the wages of workers in socialist countries and in other countries, to employ a series of other norms in order to research their standard of living.

However, we must have an understanding of the substance and structure of the wage norms of the non-socialist countries in order to see the changes in the daily lives of workers and see the antagonisms between the proletariat and the exploiting classes which occur through the wages and income of the various classes in these countries. In addition, this is very necessary with regard to formulating and agreeing to proposed investments by foreign countries in our country(proposals which require the use of manual workers and technical cadres of our country).

The Total Value of Exports and Imports

The use of this norm among the various countries does not pose any complex problems, attention only need be given to how the export or import price is calculated (FOB price or CIF price) and the currency in which the value of the goods of these countries is represented. Thus, if this norm was uniformly calculated on the basis of one price (FOB, for example) and expressed in terms of dollars (U.S.) or rubles (Soviet Union), we could directly compare the data of various countries concerning this norm. However, many countries do not compute this norm in FOB prices, but in CIF prices (especially for imports in order to show the actual price of goods at the border of the importing country), consequently, we must convert to a uniform price (for example, the CIF price can be converted to an FOB price by subtracting ship leasing costs, insurance costs and so forth from the CIF price) and this becomes complicated because it is necessary to find official data in order to make the conversion to a uniform price. The representation of prices in different units of currency also requires a method for converting

to a common unit of currency to facilitate comparisons. However, this work cannot be performed with accuracy because the structure of exports and imports is dependent upon the exporting or importing country, specifically, dependent upon each foreign trade contract; accuracy is only achieved when each country publicly announces its prices in a common unit of currency. For this reason, the statistical agency of the UN requests that countries supply data on the value of exports and imports in U.S. dollars while CEMA requests that member countries supply data in rubles. In our country, all data on the value of exports and imports are in FOB prices and in the Vietnamese dong and the ruble.

However, if we want to deeply research the structure of product groups and the exports and imports among countries, the matter becomes complex because each country has a different method for dividing products into groups and the specifications and quality of each product vary from country to country. Within CEMA, the quality and specifications of 232 types of exports and imports have been rather strictly defined for member countries when supplying these products to one another; these 232 types of products are divided into nine product groups:

1. Machinery, equipment and means of transportation: 73 types;

2. Fuels, metals and fertilizer raw materials: 42 types;

3. Chemical, fertilizer and rubber products: 38 types;

4. Building materials: 5 types;

5. Raw materials and processed products (excluding food products): 17 types;

6. Livestock: 7 types;

7. Raw materials for the production of food: 10 types;

8. Food products: 18 types;

9. Industrial consumer goods: 22 types.

In our country, exports are divided into the following groups: industrial goods, artisan and handicraft goods and unprocessed agricultural products; imports are divided into the following groups: instruments of production (subdivided into complete equipment sets, raw materials, fuels and so forth) and consumer goods.

As a result, when it is necessary to research the group structure and the exports and imports of countries, we must have a full supply of data so that we can rearrange the product groups to facilitate comparison.

The Price Index Norm

The price index is an extremely important factor in computing the real wage index and the cost of living index. The export-import price index is even more important in foreign trade work. Through the price index, we see one aspect of the supply and demand relationship concerning commodities within one country or on the international market. Therefore, it is necessary to research and use the price index data of countries. However, because of the objectives and requirements involved in the use of these data and because of the sources of data, it is not necessary to recompute this norm in each country, rather, it is of primary importance to understand the scope and method of calculation of this norm within each country.

In the socialist countries, the general price indices, the retail price index and so forth use current figures established on the basis of the quantity of goods during the reporting period to compute the actual amount of money that the population saved or had to spend in addition due to price changes during the reporting period. In the non-socialist countries, current figures are usually established on the basis of a fixed group of products during a base period.

Below are a few important product price indices that are regularly reported in the capitalist countries:

-The product price index reported by the Reuter Company, which consists of 17 types of products: copper, tin, lead, zinc, sugar, cocoa, coffee, soybeans, coconut oil, peanuts, rubber, various types of meat, rice, wool, wheat, cotton and corn. The base period for the prices and structure of this group of products is 18 September 1931.

-The commodity price index issued by the Journal THE ECONOMIST, which consists of 28 types of commodities divided into four group, with current figures representing a fixed quantity and structure of commodities:

The food products group: meat, wheat, corn and so forth, which constitutes 55.6 percent;

The metals groups: copper, lead, tin, zinc and so forth, 24.2 percent;

The fibers group: wool, jute and so forth, 13.8 percent;

The miscellaneous group: cocoa, rubber and so forth, 6.4 percent.

Base price period: 1963.

-The price index issued by the FINANCIAL TIMES, which consists of the prices of the most representative and sensitive types of commodities within the field of the U.S. dollar and the British sterling divided into five commodity

groups: food products, metals, fibers, petroleum-vegetable oils and rubber. The figures of this index are the ratio of each group in this index consistent with the ratio of the commodity groups in the total volume of world trade.

The commodity prices used to compute this index are the current prices in the international commercial centers that are recognized by everyone. The base price period is 1 July 1952.

National Income

When evaluating the level of economic development, the living standard of the people and even the ability to accumulate capital for expanded reproduction as well as any aspect of the national defense capabilities of a country, we generally use the norms of national income, the breakdown of the expenditure of national income by sector and the specific details of the use of the national income of each country.(7)

For this reason, all international organizations and countries give attention to researching the comparison of the national income norms of countries.(8) However, researching the comparison of the national income norms of countries is very complex and has become a subject of research of many international organizations (for example, the UN and CEMA), many state agencies (for example, the central statistics departments of the socialist countries and the institutes of statistics in the capitalist countries) and various colleges and economists and is a subject that has been studied for centuries (perhaps since the 17th Century, when the national incomes of Great Britain and France were researched and compared). In particular, international comparisons of this norm have been given increasing attention since the 1950's, when the two world economic systems were formed (according to the United Nations, the term planned economy is used to denote the economies of the socialist countries and the term market economy is used to denote the economies of the non-socialist countries).

The complexity of researching this norm lies in the following.

--The concepts, contents and methods of computation of this norm in the countries in the two different world economic systems are fundamentally very different: in the socialist countries, national income is the new value created by the workers within the material production field during a specific period of time(9); in the other countries: "national income is the total amount of money spent on labor and assets, which is generated as the result of production commodities and services within the national economy during the year"(10), that is, national income is the income of every person (regardless of whether he works in the material production or non-material production sectors) and through his labor or through the ownership of wealth, cropland and so forth.

--Each country's national income is stated in terms of its own currency; therefore, we face the problem of representing national incomes in a common unit of currency in order to make comparisons possible.

--In addition, it is also necessary to know the contents and methods of accounting currently used by the country in question. With regard to the capitalist countries, attention must also be given to the agencies that compute and issue data on national income.(11) Thus, it is necessary to resolve two major problems:

--To recompute the national income of other countries within a common scope of computation. For example, the norms of the socialist countries can be used as they are, but with regard to the non-socialist countries, we must deduct the pure income of persons who do not work within the material production sector from the total national income. The USSR annually recomputes the national incomes of many non-socialist countries with the result that the national incomes of these countries are 20 to 30 percent lower than originally computed. (See the following chart)

Year		Average Per Capital National Income in U.S. Dollars (1)		Ratio B/A
		(A)	(B)	%
U.S.	1976	6275	4345	69.2
GDR	1973	4880	3270	72.9
France		3760	2760	71.0
Great Britain		2410	1640	68.0
Japan		3020	2235	74.0
Thailand	1972	170	135	79.4
The Philippines		170	120	70.5
Burma	1968	67	56	83.5
India	1969	77	66	85.7
Sri Lanka	1970	145	110	75.8

(1) A. Computed by the method of the capitalist countries.
B. Computed by the method of the USSR.

--To find a common unit of currency for expressing the national income of the countries that we must research and compare. To resolve this problem, more than 10 different methods of comparison have been adopted, such as the international unit method, the consumption by workers method, the official exchange rate method, the comparative value method, the method of making comparisons based on price indexes by group, the method of making comparisons by production stage, the comparison of the national incomes of two countries, the territorial index method, the direct comparison method and so forth.(12)

At present, the UN, CEMA and many other countries are using the official exchange rate method. This is the simplest method because it is only necessary to multiply the value of the national income of a country (after it has been recomputed) by the official exchange rate of the currency of the country vis-a-vis another currency (for example, the Soviet ruble or American dollar) to learn the value of the national income of a country expressed in terms of the currency of another country. On this basis, we can compare the national incomes of countries. However, this method also has its drawbacks because many countries do not publicly report the metallic content of their currency (metallic content is one of the most important prerequisites to determining the rate of exchange of the currency of one country vis-a-vis another country)(13); many countries, although their currencies have a metallic content, do not issue paper money on the basis of the announced gold content; and the rate of exchange among countries is dependent upon economic and political factors among countries.

The comparison of national incomes is still a matter that is being debated because it does not resolve basic problems regarding theory as well as practice (primarily relating to the two economic systems: the economic system of the socialist countries and the economic system of the capitalist countries) and the comparison of this norm among countries (in terms of content, the method of recomputing national income and the method of comparing national incomes once they have been recomputed). In Vietnam, this is a brand new matter and is part of the overall situation regarding research into the international comparison of economic norms. It is our hope that the responsible agencies will make appropriate investments in the guidelines for the development, the organization and the measures for this work.

FOOTNOTES

1. For example, the thickness of pressed boards in several countries is as follows:

	Hard boards	Insulating boards
USSR	3.5mm	12.5mm
U.S.	3.5	10.7
Japan	3.25	4.0
Norway	3.5	1.2

(*) Level I: broad sector
Level II: narrow sector

2. According to Council of Ministers' decision 37.CP of 12 March 1974, which issued the national economic sector chart.

3. This is the method of dividing sectors, like the one employed in our country, into level I, level II and level III sectors.

4. In our country at this time, wages only reflect partial payment by the state in the form of money to manual workers and civil servants, the other part is in the form of supplies (through the rationing and supply price systems).

5. Dictionnaire economique et financier--Editions du Seuil, 1975, 27 rue Jacob, Paris VIe.

6. In the socialist countries, the worker, in addition to wages, also receives benefits from social funds to satisfy the material and spiritual needs of himself and his family; for example, in the Soviet Union in 1977, the average manual worker or civil servant received more than 212 rubles from these funds; the average industrial worker received 236 rubles.

7. For example, according to the United Nations, the underdeveloped countries are the countries that have a per capita national income of less than 150 U.S. dollars and have the smallest percentage of literate persons in their populations. Their level of industrialization is the lowest (the agricultural population is high and the percentage that agriculture constitutes of national income is high, greater than 40 percent).

8. When requesting that member countries supply data to them, all international organizations related to economics request that data on national income be supplied.

9. Even in such socialist countries as Hungary and Poland and within CEMA, pure output value includes both passenger transportation and posts-telegraph services fot the people; in other countries and in our country, it does not.

10. Survey of current business, 7/1947.

11. In the United States, there are many units computing this norm and other related norms, such as the National Economic Research Service, the "Conference Board" research organization, the Federal Reserve Bank in St. Louis, the "Chau Econometrie Associates, Inc." research company, Data Resources, Inc., Princeton University, General Electric Co. and so forth.

12. See: "The Comparison of the National Incomes of Various Countries," Journal of Statistics, No 1, 1979.

13. The present capitalist monetary system is based on the Bretton Woods Agreement of 1944, which established the International Monetary Fund and reads in part: "The currency exchange rate of each member country will be calculated by its gold content, which is to be considered the common standard..." and: "To implement the treaty, every calculation related to the currencies of the member countries will be based on the exchange rate mentioned above.""(Clause 1, Article IV, the Statutes of the International Monetary Fund.

7809
CSO: 4209

BRIEFS

SOVIET BUDDHIST DELEGATION--The Soviet Buddhist delegation led by Superior Bronze Gomboyev, president of the Soviet Buddhist Union, has left Hanoi after concluding a successful visit to Vietnam. During its stay in our country, the delegation visited President Ho Chi Minh's mausoleum, his office and living quarters, was cordially received by SRV Vice President Nguyen Huu Tho, and held talks with the Vietnamese Buddhist delegation led by Bonze Thich Tri Thu, chairman of the Committee for the Vietnam Unified Buddhist Church, in an atmosphere filled with fraternal friendship and religious fellowship. [Excerpt] [BK231251 Hanoi Domestic Service in Vietnamese 1300 GMT 21 Mar 80 BK]

CSO: 4209

FOOD SECTOR STRIVES TO OVERCOME DEFICIENCIES

Hanoi HANOI MOI in Vietnamese 26 Jan 80 pp 3,4

[Article by Le Linh: "Food Sector Struggles to Overcome Deficiencies in Its Work Links"]

[Text] In the recent past, the food sector has registered a number of transformations in its distribution of commodities and in the protection of the socialist property, etc. But next to the results so far achieved, there are still many a phenomenon that leaves to be desired. For instance, in the transportation link the discrepancies in the amount of commodities being transported and delivered are still much too large. From January to the end of October 1979, comparing the volume of food actually received with the volume sent out for delivery, there was 2.1 tons of rice delivered in surplus but 419 tons unaccounted for, and 5.6 tons of wheat meal delivered in surplus but 737 tons unaccounted for. In the receiving link, the persons in charge are supposed to weigh for verfication 15 percent of the commodities received but they often do not do so, thus creating the conditions for a number of drivers, warehouse personnel, stevedores and security personnel to steal the food. In the two years 1978 and 1979 there have been 23 incidents representing a loss of 103,191 kilograms of food.

In the distribution link, because the distribution is not listed on a billboard, there is almost no store clerk who has not done wrong and cut into the regulation provisions that belong to the customers. In the inner city stores, the clerks do everything at the same time, they register the sales on the board, take the money, and deliver the goods; at the outlying district stores, it takes two to make a sale, with one person writing the receipt and receiving the money and the other delivering the goods (by hand) after weighing them or dipping into the rice container. Both of these selling procedures are open to abuses. At the end of the day it is difficult for the store to uncover losses or surpluses in any one link because it is easy for the store clerk and the packing personnel to collude and have the goods slipped out to the counter, then split up the money. It is because the management is sort of loose that in many stores the clerks just take it upon themselves to tear off packaged goods and take therefrom

roughly gauged quantities to give to the customers and thereby stealing a little from each customer. It is for this reason that in the first 9 months of 1979, the whole sector sold 35,357 kilograms more than the regulation norms without there being a good explanation for it. The distribution of bread is still very troublesome to the people, for instance the bread may be delivered to one customer all at the same time, on one day, while at other times it is not delivered on the scheduled days. The phenomenon of the store clerks slipping the bread out to the merchants is still a very common phenomenon.

In the food processing enterprises, in the transportation enterprises and in the home repair plants, there is still much loss of raw and building materials. The packaging of dry noodles in the processing plants usually does not come to the regulation level of 9.6 kilogram per pack. Through many inspection drives it has been found that the underweight packages are far more numerous than the overweight ones, and some underweight ones may be short of as much as 1 kilogram each. In the three plants of Chua Boc, Nghia Do and Tuong Mai, they even package wet noodles and have them delivered to the stores for sale, thus not warranteeing the quality and/or quantity required. In the past two years, the volume of food lost and damaged in production and processing rose to 11,037 kilograms.

To overcome the above deficiencies, based on the main tasks of the sector for this year, the Food Service has come up with the following objectives and ways of struggling against negative phenomena in all links:

-- Not to allow the reoccurrence of large-scale stealing of State property and goods while reducing the amount of little thieveries. By the end of the first quarter, to overcome once and for all the phenomenon of underweighing the goods sold to people.

-- In the case of the food processing and milling enterprises, to reorganize the various links such as delivery and reception of raw materials, fuels, and ingredients, the delivery and reception from the finished products warehouse to the consumption supply warehouse, and from the latter to the customers. Right in the first quarter, the various enterprises shall weigh all the goods and products (bread, noodles) that come in and out of the plants. At the same time, they should proceed to the obligatory checking of all transport vehicles at the gates of the plants and/or enterprises.

-- In the distribution link, to keep updated records of sales. The stores must weigh all the noodle volume that comes in before selling it.

-- To reduce the complications that exist in the issuing of food. To fight the habit of giving the customers a tough time at the stores and food counters.

-- To organize inspection drives to check on the warehouses and the stores, to recheck the measurements so as to plan for correcting them in time or buy new ones.

-- To prevent the reoccurrence of bad and negative phenomena, the Food Service has instituted a regime of regular inspection of the store units, which allows for correcting violations as soon as they are discovered. At the individual units, the people's inspection teams coordinate their work with the organizations themselves in order to insure on-the-spot inspection and prevent infringements and violations of the rules. Parallel with the inspection and control work, the sector will determine and treat in time the newly uncovered incidents in which all the evidence has been gathered, as well as taking care of all the backlog of older incidents. In the case of the cadres and workers who are not up to their management responsibilities or who have had violations in their records, the sector shall assign them to other duties.

The fight against negative phenomena in the food sector is being carried out simultaneously in all the units. The Service shall concentrate on providing guidance to one office or one wheat meal processing enterprise at a time so as to draw conclusions as to the guidance of other units. The Service will establish a work cell fighting against negative phenomena in order to push and control the implementation of the fight against negative phenomena in the various units within the sector.

1751
CSO: 4209

ECONOMIC PLANNING, TRADE AND FINANCE

HANOI REPORTS ON CONFERENCE ON NATIONALITIES TASKS

OW231404 Hanoi Domestic Service in Vietnamese 1430 GMT 23 Mar 80 OW

[Text] Recently, the party Central Committee's Nationalities Department and the State Nationalities Commission held a conference to review the nationalities work in 1979 and to discuss the tasks for 1980.

On behalf of the nationalities department and commission, Comrade Nhi Quy, vice chairman of the nationalities commission, read a report reviewing and assessing the tasks in 1979. The report stresses: In the past year, despite the great trials and difficulties created by the nation's enemies and natural calamities, the nationalities policy of our party and government has displayed its correctness and great vitality. Under the clear-sighted leadership of the party Central Committee and government and under the guidance of various echelons and sectors, our entire people, united in the struggle, won the two wars of aggression begun by the reactionaries in the Beijing ruling circles in firmly defending the fatherland's sovereignty and territorial integrity. Subsequently, they overcame the extremely serious consequences of the wars and natural disasters to rapidly restore production, stabilize the people's lives, maintain political security and social order, and strengthen their forces in every aspect in order to be prepared to cope with and defeat all new military adventures of the aggressors. Despite the fierce trials of war, the relations among various nationalities have obviously improved.

Regarding the tasks for 1980, the report stresses the need to consolidate the political and spiritual unity in the great family of Vietnam's nationalities in order to defend and build the socialist fatherland and continue to implement the party's nationalities policy while strengthening the nationalities apparatuses at all levels so they can fulfill the role of advisers to the central government and party committee echelons in implementing the tasks concerning various nationalities.

Comrade Xuan Thuy, secretary of the party Central Committee, called on and addressed the conferees. He urged the cadres of various nationalities in the localities to make the compatriots aware of the enemies' cunning schemes, endeavor to consolidate the unity of nationalities and create conditions for all minority peoples to develop their mastery so they can strive to protect and build socialism in our country.

CSO: 4209

MONEY PAYMENTS IN LIEU OF ONE'S LABOR

Hanoi HANOI MOI in Vietnamese 30 Jan 80 p 4

["Readers Opinions" Column by Thu Thanh, The Receiver: "The Money Is Lost But the Person Remains"]

[Text] At the end of 1979, in many subzones there was the phenomenon of money payments made in lieu of one's labor duties. The money collection was done in the following manner: each person having labor duties for 18 days should pay 88 dong in case he or she does not wish to go on labor duty. The money is used to hire workers who would bid for the digging of 11 cubic meters (each such meter costing 8 dong). The money collections were the responsibility of one person in charge of dealing directly with the workers bidding at the worksite. Besides, the various cells like the service cell, the small trade cell, and the handicraft cooperative cell, also were asked to contribute money so as "to help" in the realization of the volume of work of the subzones.

There was even the situation of persons whose household registration is in one area but who have to make payments in lieu of labor duties in another place because they are not yet allowed to stay where they have moved to.

Has this money payment in lieu of labor duties been approved by some high echelon cadre? The books and accounts of money collected and expended, as well as the money paid in remuneration for the volume of work completed and the discrepancies in the rice allocations, the lunch rations at the worksites, must all be examined and made clear so as to prevent the occurrences of negative phenomena.

1751
CSO: 4209

THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF LARGE-SCALE AGRICULTURE EXAMINED

Hanoi NGHIEN CUU KINH TE [ECONOMIC STUDIES] in Vietnamese No 6, Dec 79 pp 41-49

[Article by Nhu Dinh Luyen: "Several Basic Matters Regarding the Size and the Norms for Establishing the Size of Agricultural Enterprises"]

[Text] Socialist transformation in the countryside by means of establishing agricultural production cooperatives has brought about qualitative changes in the organization of social production within our country's agriculture. The production results of the advanced model units that have emerged show the tremendous potentials of our country's agriculture on the road to large-scale socialist production. [See chart following page]

These results prove that even with limited material-technical bases, cooperatives that know how to creatively apply the lines and positions of the party and state to their specific conditions and correctly organize and manage the production process can achieve high economic returns.

Many research projects have shown that the advanced agricultural production cooperatives have an efficient scale and have better conditions in terms of capital and labor in order to concentrate on the development of main production sectors with a rather high level of intensive cultivation. Here, the superior nature of the new production relations has, to some extent, been displayed in a positive manner; cropland, production capital and labor are being utilized effectively. This enables cooperatives to routinely improve their ability to accumulate capital for the development of production and for improving the living and working conditions of cadres and cooperative members, thereby contributing more and more agricultural products to the state.

However, the number of advanced cooperatives is still small, constituting only 10 to 15 percent of the total number of cooperatives.(2) The remaining cooperatives are average or deficient cooperatives whose production is sluggish and, in some cases, has even declined. At many cooperatives, the value of fixed assets per hectare of farmland is only about 1,000 dong and,

Several Economic Norms of Some Advanced Cooperatives in the Red River Delta in 1977(1)

Norm	Unit	Quang Nap (Thai Binh)	Vu Thang (T. Binh)	Thang Long (Hai Hung)	Dan Phuong (Ha Son Binh)	Phu Khanh (Ha Nam Ninh)	Dinh Cong (Thanh Hoa)	Yen Son (Nghe Tinh)
1. Farmland	ha.	380	289	315	312	328	369	320
2. Laborers	persons	2056	1414	1680	2164	1249	1308	1016
3. Value of fixed assets per ha.	dong	2851	2809	2148	2312	3048	3258	1278
-per laborer		527	574	403	333	799	919	402
4. Total output value	dong	1575680	1548525	1412000	1446604	1707129	1744656	840248
-per hectare of farmland		4146	5358	4482	4617	5205	4728	2626
-per laborer		766	1098	840	666	1367	1334	827
5. Grain in paddy equivalent	tons	2060	2065	1743	2090	1580	2200	1477
-per hectare of farmland	kg.	5421	7145	5533	6698	4817	5962	4625
-per laborer		1001	1460	1037	965	1265	1681	1453
6. Commodity grain	tons	583	593	386	533	481	800	455
-per hectare of farmland	kg.	1402	2051	1225	1708	1466	2168	1515
-per laborer		259	419	229	246	385	611	477
7. Estimated consumption of grain per capita per month	kg.	19	20.2	17.9	17.3	17.2	20.8	17.4

per laborer, nearly 250 dong (3), or two to three times less than the advanced cooperatives. The other norms are as follows: the productivity of land: 1.8-3.9 times less; labor productivity: 1.7-3.8 times less; grain output, the output of commodity grain and the income per hectare of farmland and per worker are even lower.(4) In the process of advancing our country's agriculture to large-scale socialist production, enterprises must carry out production on an increasingly large-scale and with high economic returns. In actuality, however, many agricultural production cooperatives have been increased in size to 400-500 hectares of farmland or more but their production has not increased in a corresponding manner and has, in some cases, even declined. This can only be explained by the efficiency of the use of the various factors of the production process within the enterprise. Here, by means of merging many cooperatives together, the labor force, cropland and other instruments of production of the cooperative increase. However, these factors have not been efficiently used in the process of organizing production on a larger scale, consequently, basic qualitative changes in production have not occurred. It is clear that simply increasing the size of the various factors of the production process does not bring about a qualitative change by itself; if importance is not attached to increasing the efficiency of their use, the enterprise cannot achieve high results in its production or business.

The phenomenon of not attaching importance to economic returns and solely placing emphasis upon increasing the amount of arable land in order to establish "large-scale cooperatives" is a major concern of the responsible agencies of the party and state as well as many persons performing research within the field of agriculture. Deserving of attention here is the fact that shortcomings in the understanding of the scale of agricultural enterprises has led to shortcomings in everyday guidance. Therefore, it is both necessary and important to clarify several basic matters regarding the size as well as the norms for determining the size of agricultural enterprises.

The Size of Agricultural Enterprises

Centralization, specialization, cooperation and federation are the basic forms of the organization of social production. According to K. Marx, a high level of development of these forms of organization is the result of the development of production forces and production relations and is, at the same time, the basis for their further development.(5) These forms of organization have an impact within an integrated relationship and influence one another. Every development in terms of centralization leads to certain advances in specialization; and, once enterprises reach a high level of specialization, cooperation among them becomes an objective requirement. Conversely, the development of the various forms of cooperation directly causes the level of centralization of production to be raised.

Within agriculture, cropland, the other instruments of production and labor are the important factors of the production process. They share an internal

relationship and, at the same time, have an impact in a way in which they are coordinated both quantitatively and qualitatively. To carry out production, agricultural enterprises must have a certain amount of technical means corresponding to specific production processes and a number of laborers who have the specialized knowledge needed to use these technical means on a suitable amount of land. The quantity and quality of these factors as well as the mode through which they are coordinated determine the size of production of the agricultural enterprise. The development of production forces and production relations always leads to new advances in production. The important aspects of these advances are manifested in improvements in the quantity as well as quality of the factors of the production process and the improvement of the mode by which they are coordinated.

In terms of production, centralization within agriculture is understood as the process of expanding the production of the enterprise by means of the agglomeration and centralization of production within larger production units, the basic manifestations of which are the centralization of cropland, production capital and labor within production units for the purpose of producing a product output that is routinely larger. These are also the basic factors for determining the size of an agricultural enterprise. Therefore, it can be said that the level of centralization of production is reflected in the size of the enterprise; conversely, the size of the enterprise reflects a certain level of centralization of production and, therefore, it directly reflects the development of production forces under the influence of a specific set of production relations.

One factor of large-scale production is centralization in the form of enterprises of appropriate size in order to produce a large quantity of products with high labor productivity and low production costs. The enterprise is a basic production unit consisting of certain production forces and production relations, within which quality and quantity are inseparable. The scale of an enterprise encompasses the scope of all of these production forces and production relations. This scope determines the scale of the coordination among the various factors of production forces and, as a result, determines the quantity of products produced. Therefore, in essence, the scale of an enterprise is the unity of the quantity and quality of the various factors that create production forces under the impact of a specific system of production relations. As a result, it is impossible to separate organization and economics in the concept of the scale of an enterprise.

As everyone knows, the production process within each enterprise is always the process of unifying the instruments of production and labor, not only in terms of quantity, but in terms of quality as well. This means that every production process requires a certain quantity and quality of instruments of production and a certain number of workers who possess specialized knowledge. Here, the quality of the instruments of production and labor are manifested in many different areas; for example, with regard to cropland, quality is manifested in fertility and the suitability of farm-

land to the development of each type crop; with regard to machinery, it is manifested in the specialized nature of the machine and its capacity and efficiency; with regard to laborers, it is manifested in specialized knowledge and their level of proficiency. Other kinds of coordination between these two aspects of the instruments of production and labor lead to different results between these two aspects, to different economic results and, as a result, to a different enterprise scale. Thus, any concept of the scale of an enterprise than only emphasizes quantity while ignoring the qualitative aspects of the above mentioned factors of the production process is an incomplete concept. In particular, when production capacity reaches a high level of development, the second aspect becomes increasingly important, becomes increasingly significant in determining the development of the enterprise's production.

The basic trends of development of socialist agriculture are constant increases in the level of intensive cultivation and soil fertility and the increasing use of modern technical equipment with high efficiency, thereby helping to raise agricultural labor productivity. And, as a result, when a certain level of mechanization is achieved, the birth of a new system of machines that have greater capacity and higher work efficiency leads to a decrease in the total number of machines of each type in use within agriculture. This is evident in those countries that have a developed industry and an agriculture that has achieved a high level of mechanization; the following data on the GDR verifies this trend of development:

The Number of Primary Machines in Use Within Agriculture in the GDR(6)

Year	Tractors		Combines		Potato Harvesters
	Total	Large Capacity(*)	Total	Modern Style(**)	Total
1960	70,566	6,624	6,409	-	6,386
1965	124,259	9,502	15,409	-	6,843
1970	148,865	11,120	17,911	4,034	12,000
1972	146,404	27,877	14,454	6,613	10,981
1974	141,742	32,196	11,019	9,308	9,736
1975	139,982	34,310	11,235	10,574	9,174

* Greater than 60cv; ** E512

On the other hand, it is in the nature of a law that increases in agricultural labor productivity also cause the total number of persons working within agriculture to decline; however, they become workers of a new and higher quality. This law is seen in the following data:

The Number of Agricultural Workers and Their Level of Training in the GDR(7)

Year	Total	Training			
		College	Vocational Middle School	Skilled Craftsmen	Professional Worker
1963	1,028,927	4,095	16,789	28,541	136,894
1965	1,014,771	5,264	21,140	32,020	190,581
1970	886,624	7,438	28,313	47,135	427,923
1972	839,764	9,076	32,387	49,726	491,473
1974	802,875	10,847	36,194	52,217	517,738
1975	792,969	11,783	37,656	52,333	522, 711

All of these facts lead to a change in the relationship between the instruments of production and labor and, consequently, lead to a new result in production. This is why the expansion of the enterprise's production and an increase in the size of the enterprise need not require additional land, instruments of production or labor. This is totally consistent with Lenin's agrument that the scale of business within agriculture can increase without having to increase the amount of land used in this business. In his work "Capitalism in Agriculture," he stressed: "We simply should not forget...that, within agriculture, expanding the scale of business does not always mean increasing the amount of land used in business."(8)

This is the fundamental theoretical basis for our research on the size of agricultural enterprises; it is foreign to the concept that the size of an agricultural enterprise only manifests the size of production forces and production relations, only reflects the quantitative coordination of production forces and production relations. This concept also holds that increasing the size of an agricultural enterprise absolutely requires an increase in the amount of arable land, an increase in the labor force and so forth, not the qualitative improvement of these factors or the utilization of them in a manner that yields high economic returns.

The size of an enterprise directly reflects the development of production forces and, as a result, reflects the production capacity of the enterprise. Therefore, it can be said that increasing the size of an enterprise essentially means expanding its production capacity. To raise the level of centralization of production, it is necessary to carry out two important processes, the agglomeration and centralization of production. Agglomeration here is the process of forming and using a portion of the gross social product to expand the production capital of the enterprise. As regards our agricultural production cooperatives, it is the formation and use of accumulated capital. Reproduction on a larger scale depends upon the degree by which this fund increases. Due to the fact that the total income of a cooperative is limited, increases in production capital through this process are achieved by correctly defining the relationship between accumulation and consumption in a manner consistent with each specific stage of development of the cooperative. The actual situation at the advanced cooperatives in our

country proves that the process of accumulation of capital plays a very important role in increasing the scale of the production and business of the collective agricultural enterprises in the present stage. It insures that agricultural production cooperatives are able to improve their intensive cultivation, make more efficient use of their cropland, other instruments of production and existing labor and increase the returns from production. Under the conditions of a country such as ours, in which the productivity of the land is still low, the material-technical bases within agriculture, especially production tools, have not undergone major changes and the qualifications of workers and the level of management are not high, it becomes even more necessary to increase the scale of production of cooperatives by this method. Centralization is the process of centralizing production by assembling within one enterprise or larger production unit the cropland, other instruments of production and labor that were once decentralized in many enterprises. In social terms, this process only changes the distribution of production capital to the various enterprises; however, economically, this process supplements the process of agglomeration and rapidly increases the production capacity of the enterprise, with the result that the size of the enterprise is increased. In our country, it is the best process for upgrading small-scale agricultural production cooperatives to larger cooperatives. Increasing the scale of enterprises by this method is an inevitable requirement of the process of development of production forces. It creates the conditions needed to make rapid and effective use in the realities of production of modern production means and the latest scientific and technical knowledge, and, on this basis, raise the production efficiency of the enterprise. At the same time, this process creates the premise for a higher level of accumulation of capital at the enterprise. However, in our country, expanding the scale of agricultural production cooperatives by this method in the present stage must be carried out in a cautious and planned manner and only where possible. Generally speaking, because of the conditions presented above, this is not a pressing requirement of many cooperatives. As a result, clearly establishing the substance of the scale of the agricultural enterprise and the role of the two processes of agglomeration and centralization in expanding the scale of the agricultural enterprise is not only of theoretical significance, but also of tremendous practical significance.

The Norms for Establishing the Size of Agricultural Enterprises

The factors of cropland, machinery, farm implements, labor and so forth of the agricultural enterprise comprise a complete production force; when production relations are dealt with in "abstract" terms, these factors are the factors that determine the size of an agricultural enterprise and are common to every society. Every enterprise, regardless of its size, has a production capacity corresponding to that size; that is, it has a large or small quantity of the factors mentioned above and the quality of these factors is high or low, depending upon the enterprise. However, if we examine these factors individually within the enterprise, it is impossible

to directly or accurately see the production capacity of the enterprise, consequently, we cannot clearly see the size of the enterprise. Therefore, the norms of arable land, the number of livestock, the number of machines, the number of farm implements, the amount of labor and so forth can only be used to reflect individual aspects of the size of the agricultural enterprise.

The quantity of products produced is the combined result of both the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the above mentioned factors of the enterprise. In the final analysis, the production capacity of the enterprise is manifested directly in its product output. An enterprise that has much land, much labor, many machines, many farm implements and so forth of higher quality will produce a larger output of products and vice versa. Therefore, the quantity of products produced during the year is the integrated norm that directly and most correctly reflects the size of an agricultural enterprise. Because the production of the enterprise is not the result of only one, but of many specific production processes, the quantity of products produced is calculated in terms of value and called output value. Agricultural production is influenced by nature, consequently, the results of the enterprise's production are usually changing, especially when science and technology are still on a low level of development. To exclude the influence of natural factors, this norm is computed under normal weather conditions and, in scientific research, we generally use the data compiled over many years.

Due to the characteristics of agricultural production, determining the value of the products of the enterprise involve many difficulties and is complex work. Lenin himself recognized this, consequently, he stated, on this basis and on the basis of the changes in nature, that using the norm of output value to reflect the size of an enterprise is both unreasonable and inaccurate. Involved here are matters pertaining to viewpoint and methods of research. Difficulties and complexities are not reasons for the researcher to ignore things that go to the heart of the matter. Moreover, concerning the matter being discussed, V. Lenin also pointed out that it is possible to overcome the difficulties encountered in computing the monetary value of a product in order to insure the implementation of research methods that are both reasonable and consistent with the characteristics of agricultural production. In his work "New Information on the Laws of Development of Capitalism Within Agriculture," V. Lenin wrote: "Within agriculture, a field consisting of many more complex and closely knitted relationships, we encounter more difficulties in determining the output of products and the monetary value of products."(9) "However--he immediately emphasized--difficult does not mean impossible. The use of efficient methods of research consistent with the technical characteristics of agriculture and, in particular, the use of classification by the quantity of products, the monetary value of products...must be expanded."(10) By means of this viewpoint and method, Lenin irrevocably stated: "The only correct conclusion is the conclusion reached after comparing the base camps to the value of their products, that is, the conclusion that as the

size of the camps is increased, cultivation within agriculture becomes more intensive."(11) Thus, using the norm of product value to reflect the size of an agricultural enterprise is not only scientifically based, but is the most direct and correct basis as well. However, in research and in the actual work of organizing enterprises, we must not only utilize the norm of output value, but also must use a series of other indirect norms, such as the amount of arable land, the number of livestock, the number of machines and farm implements, the amount of labor and so forth to reflect each aspect of the size of an agricultural enterprise. Of these norms, the amount of arable land is the most important, because, within agriculture, cropland is the principal instrument of production. In addition to output value, which is the norm that directly reflects the size of an agricultural enterprise, we can, to some extent, use the amount of arable land to accurately estimate the size of an agricultural enterprise. V. Lenin showed that this was possible when he researched the capitalist system within modern agriculture using statistical data of Germany supplemented by investigative data of Denmark, Switzerland, the United States and Hungary. He wrote: "It is clear that cropland is the principal instrument of production within agriculture; therefore, we can, on the basis of the amount of cropland, more accurately estimate the size of business installations and, as a result, more accurately determine its type, that is, determine whether it is a small, average or large installation, whether it is a capitalist installation or does not use hired labor, for example."(12) Thus, in research, the classification of business installations by the amount of farmland they have is closely linked to the use of hired labor and the use of farm implements and machines within these installations. Lenin recognized that the size of a business installation could be more accurately estimated on the basis of its arable land. However, to clearly state the viewpoint of Marxists concerning this matter, Lenin, in the introduction to this book, stressed: "We only want to make one point, namely, that it is totally incorrect to raise the matter in the usual fashion, that is, almost entirely within the framework of a comparison of figures on business installations of different sizes (in terms of land) and the amount of cropland of these installations in different years."(13)

In his book "New Information on the Laws of Development of Capitalism Within Agriculture," V. Lenin, when analyzing the classification of agricultural farms by size, wrote: "Generally speaking, it cannot be argued that, aside from reasons regarding taxes and administration, there are scientific reasons which prove that such a classification is necessary and well based."(14) However, V.I. Lenin did not stop there, rather, he continued: "But such a classification is clearly not perfect, because it does not take into consideration the intensive cultivation of agriculture..."(15) Here, Lenin harshly critized bourgeois economists for only using the amount of arable land to research and evaluate the size of an agricultural enterprise. He pointed out that the primary course of development of capitalist agriculture is intensive cultivation, not non-intensive cultivation: "In these countries, agriculture has primarily developed through intensive cultivation, not by increasing the amount of land under

cultivation, but by improving the quality of field work, by increasing the capital invested."(16) Thus, the amount of land it has does not correctly determine the size of an enterprise because different levels of intensive cultivation lead to different product outputs and different enterprise sizes. Lenin continued: "The primary course of development of capitalist agriculture has been the upgrading of small farms, which remain small in terms of land, to large farms in terms of product output."(17) It is clear that expanding production in "depth" has become a characteristic in the nature of a law in the process of development of capitalist agriculture. Here, the quality of arable land--the primary instrument of production within agriculture--increases through the use of advanced measures of intensive cultivation and becomes the important factor determining the development of production of the enterprise. It is for this reason that we cannot simply use the amount of arable land in researching the size of an enterprise nor can we use the amount of arable land as the norm reflecting the substance of an agricultural enterprise, because it only reflects one aspect of this enterprise, even though it is an important aspect. Concerning this matter, V. Lenin pointed out: "This is because the amount of farmland is only indirect proof of the importance of the farm, and this 'proof' becomes even less reliable as intensive cultivation within agriculture is carried out on a broader scale and more rapidly. The value of the products of the farm is the direct, not indirect, proof of the importance of the farm, and this applies in each and every case."(18) The importance of the farm to which Lenin refers here is the size of the agricultural enterprise. Moreover, Lenin also distinguished between the size of an enterprise and the amount of land of the enterprise, on the one hand, and the conditions affecting the determination of how much arable land is used in business. He wrote: "On the basis of what was stated above concerning large-scale capitalist business and intensive cultivation on small pieces of farmland, the following question arises: should we insist that intensive cultivation result in a situation in which the amount of farmland used in business decreases?... No general theory or example exists for answering this question. It is a matter of the specific level of technology under the specific conditions of agriculture and the specific value of the capital needed for a given business system. Theoretically, it is possible to conceive of countless different kinds of capital investments, from the largest to the smallest, in widely varying amounts of cropland; of course, however, such investments "depend upon existing economic, technical, cultural and other conditions, and the entire matter rests on understanding the existing conditions during each specific period of time within a specific country."(19)

All of the analyses presented above very clearly prove that V. Lenin was not opposed to using the amount of arable land to study the size of an agricultural enterprise, but was only opposed to two things:

--Using the amount of arable land as the only basis for researching the size of an agricultural enterprise;

--Not clearly establishing the difference between the size of an enterprise and the amount of arable land of the enterprise and using arable land to directly reflect the size of an agricultural enterprise.

In addition, it is also necessary to clarify the objectives of V. Lenin's research. There are some who maintain that when conducting research for the purpose of proving the development of capitalism, V. Lenin used the norm of product value to reflect the size of an enterprise but when researching the size of a business, he used the amount of arable land.

In this case, it can be stated that there is no difference in the objectives of research for the simple reason that all of the excerpts cited to prove the argument presented above are taken from works researching capitalism within agriculture, works in which Lenin had already established his purposes. The question raised here is: did V. Lenin only conduct research for the purpose of verifying the development of capitalism but not provide anything of economic substance worthy of the reader's thought? Everyone knows that the objective of capitalist production is maximum profit. To achieve this objective, the capitalist must organize production efficiently and insure that cropland, the other instruments of production and labor are utilized in the manner that yields the best returns. Therefore, developing production on a large scale on the basis of using an efficient amount of cropland suited to the specific level of development of production forces in order to carry out intensive cultivation with the best possible results is an important matter that the capitalist cannot ignore. Only in this way can large-scale capitalist production yield the largest economic profit, achieve technical superiority and, as a result, eliminate small-scale production. Lenin himself pointed out these advantages of large-scale capitalist businesses compared to small farms, advantages which result in strong growth and continuous development. In how much cropland capital should be invested depends upon the specific economic, technical, cultural and other conditions during the specific stages within a given country. Clearly, if the maximum profit aspect of capitalist production is not considered, Lenin's conclusions are of equal value to socialist agricultural production. The problem facing the researcher is to fully understand Lenin's thinking in his projects that are in the nature of systems. Only in this way can they help us to research the economic phenomena that arise under capitalism in a correct and scientifically based manner. Here, the basic thinking expressed in the method of research employed by Lenin when examining the size of an enterprise is to use a system of norms in which output value is the direct, most important norm.

Using the amount of arable land as the norm for determining the size of an agricultural enterprise, as a norm for reflecting its size represents the incorrect application of the basic thinking and the method of scientific research of Lenin concerning this matter. Moreover, if this viewpoint is sed to provide practical guidance, it will surely cause inefficiencies and reduce the economic significance in organizing the production and management of the enterprise. Consider the following example: an important factor in determining the remuneration based on responsibility of enterprise leadership cadres is whether the enterprise is large or small. If this remuneration is based on the amount of land, the following situation occurs: the remuneration

of the leadership cadres of an enterprise that has a smaller output value but more land will be higher than the remuneration of leadership cadres of an enterprise that has less land but a higher output value. This is clearly unreasonable and cannot be done in practice because it causes persons to not be concerned with the results of production, namely, the number of products produced. This situation is corrected when the basis for remuneration is the value of products produced. In the future, when the level of management has been raised, agricultural production cooperatives also must pay remuneration in a manner similar to that employed by state farms. This is an indispensable prerequisite to efficiently organizing agricultural enterprises.

However, the problem faced here is that of determining which amount of farmland is suitable so that machines can operate in the most efficient manner possible and the various measures of socialist intensive cultivation can be applied as smoothly as possible in a manner consistent with the specific level of development of production forces during each stage of development. In this case, a prerequisite to considering the amount of land of the enterprise to be "efficient" in terms of the organization of the area of operation for machinery is that all other norms are also considered efficient. In other words, whether consciously or unconsciously, in recognizing the size of an enterprise, we assume that it has a corresponding amount of cropland. Therefore, we cannot clearly distinguish between the size of an enterprise and the amount of arable land of the enterprise if we ignore the norm of product value and state that using the amount of arable land to research and establish the size of an agricultural enterprise is the most accurate method. Moreover, it is also impossible to research the scale of an agricultural enterprise in a manner separated from centralization, specialization and intensive cultivation without seeing the close relationship among them as regards the effect they have in raising the returns from production for the enterprise as well as all of society. As regards determining the efficient size of an agricultural enterprise, it must be repeated that the minimum size is determined by the requirements of technology and the maximum size is determined by the level of management. Determining the efficient size of an agricultural enterprise involves finding the point at which these two limits converge under the given conditions of society and the enterprise within which production is being carried out.

In our country, under the impact of socialist production relations, the centralization of production to expand the size of agricultural production cooperatives is carried out in a planned manner. The objective and results of centralization are manifested in the more efficient use of cropland, production capital and labor. For this reason, every expansion of scale must insure the efficient coordination of the various factors of the production process in order to achieve high economic returns. This result is measured by the acceleration of production and the increased accumulation of capital for the cooperative in order to carry out expanded reproduction on a larger scale and gradually raise the income and improve the living and working conditions of the laborer. It is meaningless to

increase the size of a cooperative and raise the level of centralization without achieving these results.

Of importance in accelerating production is the need to correctly coordinate, on the basis of specific conditions, the expansion of the enterprise's size in breadth and in depth. The realities of the production of the advanced cooperatives within agriculture in our country very clearly show that it is very important to increase the size of the enterprise by increasing its ability to accumulate capital in coordination with increasing the amount of land it has in order to implement the various measures of intensive cultivation well. For this reason, many resolutions of the party and state have emphasized the close relationship between mergers to increase the size of cooperatives and reorganizing production and improving management to insure that production develops; at the same time, they have also pointed out the conditions that must exist or be carefully prepared when carrying out the merger of cooperatives. Council of Ministers' resolution 61 CP emphasized the spirit of the resolution of the 22nd Party Plenum concerning these conditions in the following manner: "There must be strong leadership cadres, there must be initial material-technical bases suited to the production and business operations of a larger cooperative, the small cooperatives that intend to merge must be strengthened and their production and organization of life must be stable and at least one good cooperative must serve as the nucleus; the mass of cooperative members must clearly see the benefits to be derived from this expansion of scale..."(20) At the same time, the resolution also stressed: "The expansion of the scale of a cooperative must be carried out in conjunction with reorganizing production in order to develop production, must be thoroughly prepared for, must be carried out under the close supervision of the provincial level and must not be carried out in a hasty manner or in a manner in which pressure is used."(21)

This is the only type of expansion of the size of a cooperative that is meaningfull, all other types are expansion in form only.

The realities of production have shown that in those localities that have correctly applied and scrupulously implemented the resolution of the party and state and fully prepared the conditions needed for a large-scale cooperative, following mergers the production capacity of cooperatives is increased not only in quantity, but in quality as well, thereby causing production to develop rapidly. At the same time, a new capability is created in this manner for accumulating capital on a higher level in order to more effectively practice intensive cultivation, thereby more fully developing the strongpoint of a large-scale, socialist agricultural enterprise. At those places that only place emphasis upon increasing the size of cooperatives by increasing the amount of farmland, not on the basis of objective requirements of the development of production forces under their specific conditions and without giving attention to making full use of existing material capabilities in order to practice intensive cultivation, the production capacity that exists following mergers is nothing more than

the combination of the production capacities of the small cooperatives and, in many cases, production capacity even declines.

Recently, the phenomenon has appeared in a number of localities of automatically increasing the size of cooperatives to village size and larger, which goes far beyond the technical equipment capacity and the level of management of cooperatives, consequently, many upheavals have occurred in the organization of production and management, thereby causing production forces to decline even more. Nevertheless, there is still the viewpoint of wanting to convert existing "economic-technical clusters" into federations of cooperatives or large-scale enterprises. The shortcomings in practical guidance that are evident here have important causes in the understanding of theory. It is in this situation that gaining an understanding of and correctly applying the argument of V.I. Lenin and the guidelines of our party and state concerning these matters are both necessary and important.

FOOTNOTES

1. Nguyen Dinh Nam: "Mot so van de ve co cau kinh te nong cong nghiep o huyen," [A Number of Matters Concerning the Agro-Industrial Economic Structure Within the District] Science Notice, Volume 10, the College of Economics and Planning, Hanoi, 1978, p 64.

2. Ibid., p 65.

3. Review data of Ha Nam Ninh Province, 1977.

4. Nguyen Dinh Nam: "Mot so van de ve...," pp 67 and 68.

5. K. Marx: "Capital," Book I, Volume 2, Su That Publishing House, Hanoi, 1960, pp 37-258.

6. Statistical annals of the GDR, GDR National Publishing House, Berlin, 1976, p 186, German version.

7. Ibid., p 185.

8. V.I. Lenin: "Capitalism in Agriculture," Su That Publishing House, Hanoi, 1961, p 54.

9. V. Lenin: "New Information on the Laws of Development of Capitalism in Agriculture," Su That Publishing House, Hanoi, 1962, p 86.

10. Ibid., pp 86-87.

11. Ibid., p 92.

12. Lenin: "Complete Works," Volume 16, Su That Publishing House, Hanoi, p 568.

13. Ibid., p 565.

14. V.Lenin: "New Information on...," p 74.

15. Ibid.

16. Ibid., p 81.

17. Ibid., p 91.

18. Ibid., p 92.

19. Ibid., pp 96-97.

20. 5 April 1976 resolution of the Council of Ministers on the campaign to reorganize production and improve agricultural and forestry management on the basic level under the guideline of advancing to large-scale socialist production.

21. Ibid.

7809
CSO: 4209

BRIEFS

HA SON BINH RESETTLERS--Over the past 3 years Ha Son Binh Province has resettled 3,148 families comprising 37,801 laborers and 47,053 dependents in new economic zones in the south and mountainous regions of the north. Ha Son Binh also provided its neighboring provinces with 1,360 grassroots and 670 state cadres. To date people resettling in these new economic zones have set up 15 forestry sites and state farms, 7 capital construction corporations and teams and 32 cooperatives. During the same period, members of cooperatives in the province's mountainous regions have opened up 15,000 hectares of virgin land for crop cultivation. [BK131331 Hanoi Domestic Service in Vietnamese 0400 GMT 7 Mar 80 BK]

CSO: 4209

HANOI BROADCASTS 10-DAY AGRICULTURAL REVIEW 21 MARCH

BK221228 Hanoi Domestic Service in Vietnamese 0400 GMT 21 Mar 80 BK

[Review of agricultural news for the past 10 days]

[Summary] "By mid-March the entire country had sown and transplanted winter-spring rice on more than 1.6 million hectares, fulfilling over 92 percent of the planned norms." In the northern provinces, the best seasonal period for transplanting the spring rice has passed, but in the past 10 days provinces continued transplanting work on the remaining area. "Last week, the northern provinces carried out transplanting on more than 90,000 hectares, bringing the total area of 5th-month-spring rice in the north to more than 970,000 hectares."

Meanwhile, "the southern provinces completed sowing and transplanting work on more than 630,000 hectares, achieving over 94 percent of the area plan. In particular, the Mekong Delta provinces fulfilled their transplanting plans."

Due to their concentration on finishing the plan for transplanting, the various localities have been slow in caring for the rice crop. As of mid-March the northern provinces had only completed the first phase of weeding on over 380,000 hectares of 5th-month-spring rice and the second phase on 80,000 hectares. This is too slow as compared with the crop cultivation schedule and the pace of growth of the rice plants. According to the Ministry of Agriculture, rice plants of the Nong Nghiep 8 variety will reach the budding stage in April and if weeding is carried out at that time, it will have an adverse effect on the growth of the rice plants. Therefore, the various localities must make efforts to carry out fertilization and weeding twice in March in order to insure the rice yield.

"It is noteworthy that the supply of organic fertilizer already prepared for the crops is generally inadequate. Despite many efforts to produce fertilizer since the beginning of the crop season, Ha Son Binh Province now has only 4.4 tons of fertilizer for each hectare and this is inadequate." After finishing transplanting the spring rice, the agricultural cooperatives in the Hanoi suburbs have carefully inspected ricefields

and devised appropriate measures for caring for the rice crop. Meanwhile, the various production collectives and peasants in Dong Nai Province are continuing to carry out irrigation on a small scale and caring for the winter-spring rice. Various districts in the province are now intensively making use of irrigation projects while mobilizing labor to tap underground water sources in order to save the rice from drought.

"According to the Ministry of Water Conservancy, at present more than 170,000 hectares already transplanted to rice are subjected to water shortage. Those provinces that are hit by drought are urgently overcoming all difficulties in finding sources of water to save the affected rice areas."

In the south, some provinces have begun reaping the early winter-spring rice. "As of now the Mekong Delta provinces and Song Be and Dong Nai provinces have harvested the early winter-spring rice on more than 130,000 hectares." While concentrating on reaping rice, the various provinces are discharging their grain obligation to the state.

"Along with sowing, transplanting and caring for the winter-spring rice, various localities last week made efforts to accelerate the cultivation of subsidiary food crops and industrial plants. In the past [words indistinct] 80,000 hectares--an increase of more than 10,000 hectares over the first 10 days of the month. By mid-March the whole country had cultivated food crops and industrial plants on more than 850,000 hectares, achieving only about 34 percent of the yearly plan."

There will be a lot of work to do in the future, but all localities should at present concentrate efforts on satisfactorily carrying out the following main tasks:

1. Finish sowing and transplanting the 5th-month-spring rice and shift to intensively caring for the rice.

2. Accelerate the cultivation of subsidiary food crops such as corn, sweet potatoes, manioc and kaoliang, and industrial plants.

3. The southern provinces should continue caring for the areas transplanted to the late winter-spring rice, and quickly finish reaping the early winter-spring rice so that preparations can be made for cultivating the summer-fall crops.

4. State farms should step up the opening of virgin land to cultivate industrial plants and fruit trees while actively applying intensive cultivation measures on the existing cultivated areas.

5. "Concerning livestock breeding, in the past only slow progress has been achieved in restoring the numbers of domestic animals, especially the number of hogs after Tet." All localities should adopt measures to regulate the

number of breeding animals among themselves and formulate plans to satisfactorily produce feed. "An outbreak of rinderpest affecting hogs has been reported in some places. In these localities, measures must be taken to treat the afflicted hogs, contain the disease and give adequate innoculation to domestic animals and fowl in spring and summer."

CSO: 4209

MINISTRY OF WATER CONSERVANCY CONFERENCE DISCUSSED

OW242120 Hanoi Domestic Service in Vietnamese 1430 GMT 24 Mar 80 OW

[Text] The Ministry of Water Conservancy recently held a conference to discuss the implementation of tasks related to irrigation work in 1980 in accordance with the spirit and content of the Sixth Party Central Committee Plenum Resolution.

The conferees discussed the technical progress achieved by the irrigation sector in developing economic and technical management, training technical cadres and workers, reorganizing the irrigation apparatuses of various echelons, improving the work style and organizing united irrigation enterprises.

The conferees stressed the role of party committee echelons and of the administration at various levels in guiding the implementation of the irrigation work and the need to closely coordinate the sectors concerned, especially the irrigation sector, with the agricultural, power and coal, material supply, machinery, metallurgical and communications and transportation sectors as well as with the trade union organizations and youth union.

Regarding the most important tasks in irrigation work in the coming years, the conferees reasserted the need to concentrate on using available irrigation projects and building new ones according to the plan and on the management and utilization of projects still under construction; to attach importance to making concentrated investments; and to simultaneously build, manage and use irrigation projects to support intensive agricultural cultivation and to prevent and control natural calamities.

CSO: 4209

LAO CAI APATITE MINE, CHEMICAL SECTOR BOOST PRODUCTION

Hanoi QUAN DOI NHAN DAN in Vietnamese 7 Feb 80 p 2

/Articles in 'From Dong Van to Ca Mau' column: "Lao Cai Apatite Mine Mines and Moves Large Quantity of Ore Since Beginning of 1980; Chemical Sector: 39 3 February Projects"/

/Text/ The "Lao Cai Apatite Mine" (Hoang Lien Son) has mined ore and loaded dirt and rock that has surpassed the January 1980 plan norm. The mine has mined more than 5,000 tons of ore, dug up and moved more than 30,000 tons of ore to supply to factories, and loaded more than 30,000 cubic meters of dirt and rock.

Mine cadres and workers are emulating to complete early 15 projects bearing the "3 February" name. The electromechanical sector is overcoming supply and technical difficulties, installing additional 550-kilowatt 066 generators, making full use of old, restored supplies and parts and repairing two power shovels (a 4 cubic meter type and a 2.5 cubic meter type). The mine construction and assembly corporation has leveled thousands of cubic meters of dirt and rock, and built more than 5,000 meters of road into work sites doing new mining. Drivers in the mining and transportation segments are satisfactorily carrying out maintenance and upkeep of vehicles, and have increased the amount of digging and transportation from 1,000 to 1,500 tons a day. Transportation teams no. 19, 20 and 7 are routinely exceeding the norm for transporting ore to trains by from 20 percent to 100 percent compared with previous months.

Factories, work sites and mines subordinate to the General Chemical Department have 39 "3 February" projects celebrating the party's 50th birthday.

Chemical plants have many projects expanding production and increasing the source of primary raw materials. The Lam Thao superphosphate factory has expanded its iron oxide production technique and tripled output currently. The Viet Tri Chemical Plant is building projects to produce magnesium carbonate. Battery Factory 2 (Vinh Phu) is building a recycled lead smelting furnace with an output of 0.8 to 1 ton per batch. The Vinh Thinh Chemical Plant is opening a new phosphate mine. The Ha Bac Nitrogen Fertilizer Plant

is developing soda production techniques. The Duc Giang Chemical Plant is expanding the cleansing cream production line to three times that presently and is producing new chemicals, such as nickle sulfate, sodium sulfate, sodium phosphate and potassium chromate.

Chemical construction work sites have 17 projects which are accelerating work progress and are being put into use at the Lam Thao Superphosphate Plant, the Xuan Hoa Battery Plant, the Trang Kenh Soda Plant and the Van Dien Phosphate Fertilizer Plant.

The Sao Vang Rubber Plant has 12 projects that are processing and manufacturing machinery and equipment such as the tube winding and cutting machine, the hydraulic press, etc., to maintain and step up production.

The Van Dien Phosphate Fertilizer Plant, the Vinh Phu Ferrite Mine, the Sao Vang Rubber Plant, etc., also have projects developing living conditions and public welfare.

6915
CSO: 4209

HEAVY INDUSTRY AND CONSTRUCTION

BRIEFS

NGHE TINH CONSTRUCTION--To mark President Ho Chi Minh's 90th birthday and the SRV's 35th founding anniversary, the Nghe Tinh Provincial Construction Service and a team of GDR experts in Vinh City have recently signed a pledge to emulate in completing 23 major projects so that they can be put into use in 1980. These include nine public utility projects, six housing projects and eight industrial projects. [BK200315 Hanoi Domestic Service in Vietnamese 0400 GMT 13 Mar 80 BK]

CSO: 4209

NEEDS OF CONSUMER GOODS PRODUCTION IN HO CHI MINH CITY OUTLINED

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[Article by Thuy Lan: "The Production and Purchasing of Consumer Goods Within the Artisan and Handicraft Industry in Ho Chi Minh City"]

[Text] The artisan and handicraft forces of Ho Chi Minh City consist of tens of thousands of production installations encompassing many different trade sectors that are equipped with relatively modern machinery and have relatively highly skilled artisans and handicraftsmen. They can annually produce a total output value three to four times that of local state-operated industry, produce tens of thousands of different consumer goods and supply goods not only to the people of the city, but also to many neighboring provinces and for exportation. In the production of some products, many artisan and handicraft installations are superior to state-operated industrial installations in terms of their technical equipment and manual skills and flexibly change their products to suit the needs of the market. In the course of the city's advance to socialism, the artisan and handicraft industry will continue to exist and develop in a long-term, strong manner and will supplement and competently support state-operated industry. Therefore, since liberation day, the municipal party committee and people's committee have directly led and guided the transformation, expansion and development of the city's artisan and handicraft sector. Since then, many trades have been restored and developed at a rapid rate. As of the end of 1978, there were approximately 18,000 production installations with 142,000 workers. Some trade sectors have developed in a rather centralized manner, such as the textile sector in Tan Binh District, the metal consumer goods sector in the 5th, 6th and 11th Precincts and the exported woven goods sector in the 1st Precinct. The total output value of the entire artisan and handicraft sector has increased each year: 191 mil[illegible]ong in 1976, 388 million dong in 1977 and roughly 600 million dong [illegible] At the same time, socialist production and commerce have begu[illegible] to take shape and go into operation. The contracts signed between production installations and commerce organizations have increased with each passing day in terms of both quantity and quality. In 1978, the city had 28 purchasing stations under

the management of the level II corporations and the various precincts and districts. Many purchasing stations of the specialized corporations have been established at numerous sites within the city in order to control the sources of goods through purchases, especially goods used to meet essential consumer needs. Today, the city's commerce sector is doing business in practically all of the basic, important goods needed to meet the consumer needs of the people and the various agencies within the city.

Generally speaking, however, the results that have been achieved are not commensurate with existing capabilities or the capital that has been invested and do not fully meet the need for products, even the most basic products. This situation can be seen in the following areas:

--Although production and purchases have increased each year, they have still failed to fulfill the plan. In 1978, production only equalled 81.2 percent of the plan and purchasing activities only equalled 50 percent of the plan.

--As regards production alone, the production of primary products under the plan assigned by the state has been very low: in 1978, the production of bicycle sprockets only equalled 14 percent of the plan, the production of hubs equalled 76.1 percent of the plan, the production of knitted goods equalled 61.9 percent of the plan, the production of glass equalled 77.6 percent of the plan and so forth; the entire industrial goods sector completed 60 percent of its plan, the plastic and rubber sector completed 35 percent of its plan and so forth. Meanwhile, in order to meet their total output value norms, production installations had to produce nearly 500 different products on their own outside the plan.

--As regards purchasing activities, artisan and handicraft production annually constitutes about two-thirds the total output value of the entire industrial and artisan-handicraft sector of the city; however, the value of the products purchased from this sector only amounts to about 40 percent of the total value of the products purchased from the entire sector. In 1978, the industrial goods purchased only equalled about 14.3 percent of output value, the equivalent of 71.59 percent of the industrial goods purchased in 1977 and 80.8 percent of the plan. Level II commmece has only purchased about 44 percent of the fish sauce produced, one-sixth of wood products and one-fifth of pottery and glass products. The purchasing of many important, high quality products has constantly decreased.

These facts prove that the level of mobilization in production and purchasing activities is very low compared to the capabilities of the artisan and handicraft industry. Generally speaking, only about 50 to 60 percent of existing production capacity is being utilized and only about 60 percent of the products being produced are purchased.

This prolonged situation has adversely affected the returns from production and purchasing activities, so much so that many basic, vital needs

of the people have not been met. Meanwhile, the organized market does not have the quantity and types of consumer goods found on the free market and even lacks a number of types of products, including types produced from raw and finished materials managed and supplied by the state.

In our opinion, the causes of this situation are found in production, purchasing activities and related policies. The instability of production and the failure of production to meet the plan has influenced the results of purchasing activities; however, purchasing activities have also failed to truly be a lever stimulating the development of production. The basic steps that must be taken to resolve these problems are accelerating production and controlling the sources of goods through purchases. Accelerating production is of decisive significance, but purchasing activities are also an indispensable prerequisite and have the effect of stimulating production.

In Production

1. Planning and the reorganization of production: this is an important matter, one that must be raised on the basis of the actual situation. At present, following 3 years of transformation, the artisan and handicraft production of the city is gradually becoming collectivized. However, within the consumer goods production sector, there are still many different economic segments: state-operated, joint public-private, collective, private and individual artisans and handicraftsmen. Generally speaking, production is still complicated and does not comply with the laws of unified and efficient planning. The formulation of plans is frequently not based on actual production capacity or the supply of raw and finished materials. Long waits for contract work and the duplication of products among the production installations within a precinct or among the various precincts and districts are rather widespread. Meanwhile, some necessary products are not being produced by any installation, consequently, unnecessary shortages have developed. Guidance has focused primarily upon the construction of new installations at a time when many existing installations are only using 50 to 60 percent of their capacity. The assignment of plans is so inaccurate that precincts frequently accept plans for products that are not even produced within the precinct. For example, the production of bicycle "con phuoc" and pedals was assigned to the 4th Precinct and the production of bicycle sprockets and leather seat covers was assigned to the 3rd Precinct. Conversely, some precincts and districts that have the necessary production capacity have not been assigned norms, such as the capacity to produce insecticide spray tanks in the 10th Precinct, hubs, "con phuoc" and pedals in the 1st Precinct, the 6th Precinct, Nha Be District and so forth.

This situation is one of the causes of such problems as unstable production the failure to make full use of machinery and equipment capacity, the waste

of social labor, changing prices, purchasing difficulties and the failure of purchasing activities to meet the plan.

The first thing that must be done to bring the consumer goods production of the artisan and handicraft sector into the orb of socialist production and gradually move it down the path of socialist production is to conduct good planning. On this basis, we can gradually abolish the haphazard nature of production and gradually initiate centralized, cooperative and specialized production.

On the basis of fully assessing and making good use of the existing capacity and production strengths of the production installations within the various precincts and districts, the planning of artisan and handicraft production in Ho Chi Minh City must meet the following requirements:

--Clearly establish the primary immediate as well as long-range guidelines of state-operated industry as regards serving the consumer needs of the people well. Importance must first be attached to the most basic, essential, universal and practical needs. At the same time, it is necessary to accelerate the production of consumer goods for exportation produced from domestic materials or produced under contracts for foreign countries. Domestic production capacity must be closely linked to the international market.

--Make full use of the existing strengths of the textile sector, the ready-made clothing sector, the metal consumer goods sector, the plastics, rubber and leather processing sector, the glass sector and so forth, sectors in which the city now has much potential in terms of labor and technical skills.

The process of planning production must, at the same time, establish an efficient relationship between making full and good use of existing production capacity and building and developing new installations within the same sector. The question of developing new production installations should only be raised when the production capacity of existing installations is being utilized as fully as possible and demand is still not being met. As regards those trade sectors of the city that presently have surplus production capacity and a number of trade sectors whose primary sources of raw materials are in neighboring provinces, we should consider the possibility of moving a number of installations to localities that have available raw materials in order to facilitate transportation and production. These could include, for example, a number of installations of the wood products sector, the glass sector, the sector producing soap from coconut oil, etc. As regards the new artisan and handicraft installations that are formed but do not have prospects for development in the future and sectors in which state-operated industry and the other artisan and

handicraft sectors have a production tradition and highly developed skills that have enabled them to meet needs or be able to meet needs in the future, determined steps must be taken to reorient production in accordance with the common planning of the city.

Because artisan and handicraft consumer goods production encompasses many different trades, encompasses a wide variety of products that are frequently changing, is rather heavily influenced by the free market and is difficult to control and comprehensively manage, the planning of this production cannot be the same as the planning of state-operated enterprises. The effect of planning must be to create the conditions for the artisan and handicraft sector to develop in an increasingly strong and steady manner and carry out production, not in a haphazard or overly restrictive manner, but in a manner that yields high economic returns. In each planning period, products must increase in both quality and quantity and the imbalance and lack of synchronization within the sector's production must gradually be corrected.

Therefore, the basic, essential consumer goods that are produced in large quantities and are under the exclusive management of the state must be incorporated within the balance in the plan and become legal norms binding upon the artisan and handicraft production installations. The development of production, increases in the accumulation of capital and the improvement of the standard of living of artisans and handicraftsmen should depend primarily upon the implementation of these legal norms. However, with a flexible planning device, the city should only stipulate the names of the primary products to be produced, the quantity of these products and their qualitative standards. Then, on the basis of the changing requirements of the market during each period of time and their ability to meet demand, installations can take the initiative and produce one product or another within this scope of products in different shapes and colors.

Products that are produced in small quantities for which there is an unstable demand and which are not under the exclusive management of the state need not be incorporated within plan norms. Installations will establish direct relations with one another to buy and sell raw materials and market products. To manage these products, the state will issue directed norms on production guidelines and production goals and requirements in coordination with reorganizing production and marketing by means of economic policies and measures, such as prices, taxes, etc. Under these conditions, permitting a number of private individuals to operate within the field of production under the guidance and control of the state is necessary in order for production to develop strongly; on this basis, the conditions will be created for the state to control and manage production on a larger scale once production develops and the market has stabilized.

In order to closely coordinate with planning and create favorable conditions for planning to have its full, positive impact, reorganizing production is

also a matter that must be raised. Within a number of sectors, artisans and handicraftsmen have been assembled within cooperatives and production teams but the conditions have not been fully provided for production to be carried out in a smooth and stable manner, consequently, production has not developed, labor productivity has not increased, product output has declined and product quality has also declined, thereby affecting the income of cooperative members.

It is necessary to consider economic returns a primary basis for determining the specific form of organization to be employed. As regards consumer goods production, cooperatives should not be organized to produce products that can be produced by production teams well nor should we hastily open state-operated installations for products that can be produced by cooperatives well. Specifically, cooperatives should only be organized to produce important, essential products that are under the exclusive management of the state within such sectors as the food product, textile, leather, ready-made clothing, paper, metal consumer goods, plastics, rubber and other sectors and installations processing goods under contract for exportation. On the basis of centralizing production and developing upon the strengths of the division of labor and cooperation in labor, these sectors will create the conditions for specialization and cooperation in production and will supplement and support state-operated industry. Over the long range, these cooperatives can join product groups or serve as satellites of state-operated enterprises.

Private production activities that have a good impact upon the production and life of the city must be maintained and encouraged to develop along with other forms, especially to serve the miscellaneous and frequently changing needs of the people. These are found in a number of sectors that produce miscellaneous products, provide services, perform repair work, etc. With such a division of labor in production, production activities would not be restricted or rigid but could be flexibly altered depending upon specific conditions and would yield the highest possible economic returns.

2. Creating stable and long-term sources of raw materials for artisan and handicraft production: one of the characteristics of the artisan and handicraft consumer goods production of the city prior to liberation day was that the majority of raw and finished materials were imported from overseas. Domestic sources of raw materials were used very slightly and only in sectors of a unique, national nature. Therefore, since liberation day, one of the largest obstacles restricting the development of artisan and handicraft consumer goods production has been the serious shortage of raw and finished materials. Sources of imports have declined. Abundant domestic sources of raw and finished materials have not been promptly supplied nor have they been efficiently developed. The textile sector lacks

thread, the bicycle production sector lacks steel for lathe cutting blades and drill bits, the bamboo blind sector lacks bamboo, etc. Those raw and finished materials that are supplied generally are not properly matched, are not of the specifications and types required by production and are delivered slowly; the textile, leather, bicycle spare part and other sectors usually only receive 70 to 80 percent of the materials required under their plans; the paint and lacquer, plastic, rubber, aluminum, rattan and other sectors are only supplied with 20 to 40 percent of the materials they need. For example, according to its contract, the Binh Tay textile production team in the 4th Precinct should have begun production in April but did not receive its raw materials until August; in addition, these materials were not of the correct specifications and quality. The plastic goods production sector needed 2,013 tons of PE plastic but was only supplied with 145 tons and needed 245 tons of PS plastic but only received 4 tons.

The production and supply of available domestic raw materials, such as rattan, tre and nua bamboo and so forth, are very irregular and involve many intermediaries with many complex procedures. For example, to transport umbrella stands from Tay Ninh to Saigon, the production installation must go through 17 agencies to obtain 15 seals, sign 5 contracts and pay many different types of taxes. Because they had become rotten, transport permits were not issued for some 52,000 pieces of truc bamboo of the Truong Son Cooperative and 14,500 pieces of the Binh Minh Cooperative purchased in Tay Ninh. This is not to mention that when bamboo is transported from Tay Ninh to the city, it is subject to a 7.5 percent tax on the value of raw materials, a 7.5 percent forestry products tax, etc.

In keeping with the division of echelons, the Industrial Service is responsible for balancing and supplying materials to both state-operated industry and the artisan and handicraft industry. In actuality, however, due to the shortage of materials, there have been many cases of disputes over materials between state-operated industry and the artisan and handicraft sector, cases that revealed the unfair treatment of the artisan and handicraft sector and light attention to its production. For example, within the export clothing sector, artisan and handicraft installations are not provided with the same full supply of raw materials, spare parts and tools, even thought they produce the same products for the state.

Interrupted production activities, the failure to make full use of machine and equipment capacity and the inability to provide cooperative members with stable work are the consequences of the shortage of raw and finished materials described above.

On the basis of the actual production situation and the ability to supply raw and finished materials, the development of artisan and handicraft consumer goods production over the long range must be based on the supply

capabilities of existing and future raw material installations within the country. As regards supplies that must be imported, the shortage of supplies and the failure to provide a full supply that meets production requirements will surely continue to occur and exist for a long time. Therefore, in the future, on the basis of accelerating production and accelerating exports in order to increase our imports, incentive must be provided for production installations to display creativity and initiative in substituting available domestic materials for imported materials in coordination with making efficient, economical use of materials under specific ceilings in order to somewhat reduce the tightness in the supply of raw and finished materials. At the same time, in view of the difficult conditions that exist, we must be determined to implement the principle: giving priority to valuable, rare raw materials for the production of important products of high quality and high value, regardless of whether the production installation is a state-operated enterprise or and artisan and handicraft installation. There must be equality and reasonableness in the supply of raw and finished materials between state-operated enterprises and artisan and handicraft installations in accordance with the following guidelines:

--The state is responsible for supplying the majority of raw materials that are under the exclusive management of the state through the supply systems of the various sectors;

--Contracting units must provide primary and secondary raw materials to the production installation;

--The commerce system must expand the purchasing network in order to help to stabilize the supply of raw materials to artisan and handicraft installations.

In the process of meeting the raw material needs of the artisan and handicraft installations, it is also necessary to strengthen the coordination among the city, the sectors and related neighboring provinces in order to reduce all unnecessary red tape, difficulties and shortages and create the conditions for production installations to easily develop sources of raw and finished materials within the locality.

The city can cooperate and pool capital with neighboring localities to develop and pre-process raw materials and deliver industrial goods produced by the city in exchange for raw materials excavated by localities in accordance with long-term economic contracts that have been signed. In addition, sources of raw and finished materials that can be reused, which take the form of discarded products and materials, are very large and scattered throughout the city. As a result, installations must organize good purchasing networks and establish relationships with state-operated enterprises and joint public-private enterprises in order to recycle these materials. To some extent, the products produced might not be of high

quality or of low production costs; however, society will have many more consumer goods, the pressing needs of the people will be met and the production capacity of the sector will be utilized on a higher level.

In Purchasing Activities

1. Revamping and strengthening the organization that makes purchases and controls the sources of goods: putting the sources of goods under the control of the state through purchases is a part of the social reproduction process. It has a strong impact upon production, circulation, distribution and consumption. In addition, it also exerts more than a small influence upon labor, wages, prices and other incentive policies. Under the present conditions of the country, in which the balance between the supply of and demand for consumer goods is very strained and prices on the unorganized market are very high compared to prices on the organized market, controlling the sources of goods through purchases in order to centralize the vast majority of the various types of essential, basic goods within the hands of the state so that the state has the material conditions required to meet the needs of production well and maintain and stabilize the life of the people has become the pressing task of the entire commerce sector.

Within the field of commerce, due to the failure to fully understand these requirements, many weaknesses have been revealed in the course of development. The purchasing network has increased in size, but it is not able to be the master of purchasing activities or dominate and control the market. The division of purchasing responsibilities of the various commerce organizations among the various levels and sectors, from the central level to the local level, has not been clearly defined, consequently, the purchasing process is fragmented and not organized on a product sector basis. The universal situation at this time is: one artisan and handicraft production installations does business with many commerce organizations of various sectors and levels, all of which place orders for goods and purchase goods under many different systems. These organizations are the level I corporations of the central level, the level II corporations of the services and the corporations of the precincts and districts as well as the consumer cooperatives of the various wards. This phenomenon occurs routinely, especially with regard to products for which there is both a local and a national need, such as aluminum goods, plastic goods, leather goods, paper and so forth. The inevitable result is: the product is bought by the person who has the most money. Commerce organizations maintain direct contacts with and sign purchasing contracts with production installations without going through the service or precinct. Competition for products has developed as a result of the failure to assign specific zones and products to purchasing organizations. By working against and stepping upon one another, the commerce organizations have not only created additional confusion, disorder and lack of initiative in purchasing activities, adversely affected the returns from business and created

tension among the commerce organizations themselves, but they have also disrupted the normal activities of the production installations and management agencies.

As a result, it is necessary to urgently revamp and strengthen the commerce sector's purchasing activities and create the conditions for the socialist commerce sector to be strong enough to control the market and insure that the state controls the vast majority of the products produced by the artisan and handicraft sector. It is necessary to bring about a fundamental change in purchasing activities. This change must be seen not only in attitude, but also in the policies and mode of business of purchasing organizations, from the central to the local levels. The commerce organizations, "which are directly concerned with the daily lives of the people, must be sensitive to the consumer needs of the people and must have the responsibility of contributing to production so that production is consistent with consumer demands. Within the scope of the local economy, the commerce sector must give thought to which products should be purchased and how they should be purchased and to which products should be sold and how they should be sold to the people in order to make a positive contribution to production and encouraging the masses to accelerate production... The commerce sector should not wait until the people produce a product before purchasing it, rather, they should provide the people with guidance from the very outset, should help them produce products that can be sold so that it can purchase necessary products."(1)

The commerce forces engaged in purchasing activities must be strengthened in every respect: the purchasing network, material-technical bases, the corps of professional business cadres and so forth, in order to maintain close contact with production installations and promptly support and stimulate the development of production.

It is necessary to define the functions, tasks, authority and relationship of coordination in purchasing activities among the various organizations within the purchasing network on the various levels within the city in accordance with the following principle: the level that has the most favorable conditions for purchasing many types of products for the state at the lowest possible costs while stimulating the strong development of production should be given the authority to purchase these products. Specifically:

--Products produced by the city to serve the needs of the entire country should be purchased by the level I commerce organization in accordance with the plan assigned by the state;

--Products that are produced by the city primarily to serve the local consumer needs of the residents of the city should be purchased and regulated by the level II commerce organization in accordance with the plan of the city;

--Products outside the plan that are not produced in large quantities, are not produced on a regular basis and are produced by means of making full use of discarded materials and rejected products or from other independently developed sources of materials should be purchased by the commerce organizations of the precincts and wards. On the basis of clearly establishing which products are to be exclusively managed and purchased by the state, cooperative commerce and private commerce should be given permission to do business in products that lie outside the scope of state management, provided that they are purchased under the close guidance, supervision and control of the state. We must be determined to reorganize private commerce forces with a view toward effectively utilizing these forces to serve the requirements of production and not allow them to pose difficulties or obstacles to the state's effort to control the sources of goods through purchasing activities.

2. Implementing suitable modes of purchasing: the mode of purchasing reflects the direct relationships between commerce organizations and production installations. If these modes are suited to production, they not only insure maximum business returns, but also help to stimulate the strong development of production.

In the past, the commerce organizations have established purchasing relationships with production installations in one of two ways: placing orders for goods and having goods produced under contracts.

Under the mode of placing orders for goods, the production installation and the purchasing agency reach agreement through negotiations concerning the quantity, quality, types and prices of products as well as the mode of delivery. This mode requires that the installation provide its own raw and finished materials for production, and, generally speaking, these materials are not rare or scarce materials, not materials managed by the state.

Under the contract ordering purchasing mode, the state supplies all the raw and finished materials required and the installations must carry out production in accordance with the requirements of the commerce sector regarding the quantity of products to be produced, their specifications and quality and material consumption ceilings. The commerce sector takes control of all primary products, secondary products and scrap materials.

Under present production conditions, the contract ordering mode of purchasing is still necessary, and it will continue to be necessary for a long time to come. However, whether or not it is absolutely necessary for the vast majority of artisan and handicraft forces to serve as contractors for the commerce sector is something that must be considered.

In the North, we gradually came to the conclusion: contract ordering by the commerce sector was one of the reasons why the growth of artisan and

handicraft installations was restricted and why these installations failed to take full initiative and assume responsibility in production.(2)

The main advantage of artisan and handicraft consumer goods production is that there are many cooperatives and private production teams and installations that have very much experience in making innovations, making inventions, making technological improvements and bringing products up to date. However, with the present form of contract ordering, these positive aspects are not fully developed upon.

Therefore, in our opinion, the contract ordering mode of purchasing should only be applied to production sectors that utilize rare and scarce materials that are difficult to supply and produce products that must be tightly managed. Generally speaking, by planning production in an efficient and flexible manner in order to apply the principles of socialist management on the basis of carrying out socialist transformation well and heightening the spirit of collective ownership of cooperative members, it is necessary to boldly and widely implement the system of selling raw materials and buying finished products in order to create the conditions for production installations to display the fullest possible initiative, creativity and responsibility in production and be sensitive to and flexibly meet varied needs in a manner consistent with the tastes of consumers. Under this mode, the state will sell raw and finished materials to production installations and purchase all of the products produced from the materials sold to them. Product prices and standards will be defined in detail in economic contracts beneficial to both parties.

In summary, every form of purchasing activities requires different conditions in order to be applied and the various forms of purchasing activities are never in opposition to one another nor do they ever nullify one another. In order to purchase many products from the artisan and handicraft sector, the purchasing organizations of the city must select a mode of purchasing activities that is consistent with each sector and each installation. The effective coordination of these various modes is necessary in order to insure that the commerce sector fulfills its role as the "housewife of society" and both guides and stimulates the development of production.

Implementing Appropriate Incentive Policies

The production and purchasing of consumer goods within the artisan and handicraft sector cannot be carried out smoothly or yield high economic returns without clear and reasonable incentive policies.

In Ho Chi Minh City, the development of production and the acceleration of the purchasing of artisan and handicraft consumer goods in the recent past have proven this. Due to the lack of reasonable incentive policies and fair treatment within production and business, the tremendous potentials of

this sector have not been thoroughly developed. Several sectors and the production of several products have been gradually eroded to a significant degree due to the unreasonable nature of some of these policies.

The artisan and handicraft production installations are an indispensable part of the socialist production apparatus in our country. They are permanent installations of strategic significance in the process of socialist construction. In order for them to develop, they must be treated equally in every respect in order to implement the principle of benefit to all: benefit to the state, to the collective and the private producer.

At present, developing the strengths of the city's artisan and handicraft sector as much as possible in order to develop the production and accelerate the purchasing of consumer goods requires the urgent promulgation of a number of reasonable policies regarding prices, investments and cash. Although they are not complete or comprehensive, these are the basic aspects and, in actuality, the weak aspects of the system of policies regarding the artisan and handicraft sector.

1. The price policy: under normal conditions, the artisan and handicraft production installations, as well as state-operated enterprises, require prices that cover production costs and provide an appropriate profit in order to create the conditions for expanded reproduction, the application of new technology and the gradual improvement of the living standards of artisans and handicraftsmen.

In actuality, however, the establishment of the prices of artisan and handicraft products has, in many cases, failed to meet these requirements. The prices of many products do not cover production costs, especially the cost of materials. The city price committee has set the price of 1 ton of split rushes as 450 dong; in actuality, however, installations must pay as much as 700 to 900 dong. Because the state has failed to provide a full supply of raw materials, installations, in order to maintain production, have had to buy raw materials on the free market at prices many times higher than the stipulated price and are unable to compensate for the difference in prices. If they want to accept contract work, installations must also accept a low price for this work. Once, several installations producing rush mats, bamboo blinds, embroidery goods and ready-made clothing in the 3rd Precinct intentionally went out of business because of the very low prices for contract work. Moreover, contract work prices vary from place to place. In the textile sector, the contract prices paid for the My A product are 0.291 dong per meter to the 5Q Enterprise and 0.23 dong per meter to the 2P Enterprise. The contract prices paid for 1.43 meter cheviot are: 0.39 dong per meter to the 5Q Enterprise, 0.35 dong per meter to the 2P Enterprise and 0.43 dong per meter to the Level I Cloth and Fiber Corporation. The prices that have been set for many products do not encourage installations to improve their products. For example, the price

paid for each exported bamboo blind produced by the Truong Son Cooperative is 73.50 dong; there are many more attractive styles, but because they would cost more, they have not been approved for mass production. Also at this cooperative, the prices of truc bamboo, lacquer and packaging material have increased while the purchasing price paid by the corporation has not changed. Because production costs have increased but contract prices have remained unchanged, many artisan and handicraft installations have begun operating at a loss and have either shifted to the production of other products or are dissatisfied with the products they are producing. As a result, in order to provide incentive for production installations, the establishment of contract work prices and product purchasing prices for the artisan and handicraft sector must be based on the following specific principles:

--Under normal production conditions, prices must cover reasonable production costs and provide a profit;

--Prices must provide a satisfactory income for artisans and handicraftsmen and a reasonable accumulation of capital in order to create the conditions for the installation to purchase machinery and equipment, conduct research, test manufacture new products, improve working conditions and labor safety and expand collective welfare services;

--Prices should be established on the basis of the quality and the diversity of the specific uses of products, on the basis of the product's durability and precision, on the basis of how well it satisfies consumer tastes on the market and so forth in order to provide incentive for artisan-handicraft installations to improve their techniques, improve their products, try to gain an understanding of the constantly changing requirements of the market and flexibly meet these requirements in order to raise their income.

Insuring that prices cover the reasonable production costs of artisan and handicraft production installations is one of the essential requirements of pricing agencies. At present, the state is not always able to provide a full supply of materials to artisan and handicraft installations. Under these circumstances, prices should vary on the basis of the amount of materials supplied by the state. The planned price should be maintained for any product that can be produced entirely from materials supplied by the state at stipulated prices. The purchasing price should be increased by a reasonable percentage for any product produced partially from materials provided by the state and partially from materials which the installation has to purchase at higher prices from other units or private individuals. The percentage by which the price is increased should be based on the amount of materials that must be purchased and the price agreed upon for these materials. The establishment of prices by these procedures will create the conditions for production installations to cover reasonable

production costs. Naturally, the ordering agencies must agree to this increase in the purchasing price in order to end the practice of production installations having to absorb cost increases not caused by them.

2. The cash draw policy: to insure normal production, the artisan and handicraft installations must have a certain amount of cash. At present, however, installations are encountering very many difficulties in drawing cash to cover their costs, difficulties that pose significant obstacles to production and to purchasing activities. The production installations are:

--Limited in terms of the purposes for which they can draw cash and the amount of cash that can be drawn. The banks of the 5th Precinct, the 1st Precinct and Binh Thanh District only allow installations to draw cash in order to pay their workers. The banks of the 3rd Precinct, 4th Precinct and Tan Binh District allow installations to draw cash to pay for production costs, but the amount of cash that can be withdrawn is very limited and only small amounts can be drawn at any one time. The Nhat Quang Fan Production Installation in Tan Binh District needs 60,000 to 63,000 dong per month to purchase raw materials, pay for transportation and pay its workers but is only allowed to draw 18,000 dong!

--Cash drawing procedures are complicated. In order to withdraw cash to pay its workers, an installation must forward a wage sheet bearing certified signatures from the Bureau of Industry and the Bureau of Labor to the bank. In the 5th Precinct, the signature of the precinct Trade Union is also required. Much time is needed to obtain the certified signatures of these agencies, sometimes the entire month.

One point that must be clarified is: the artisan and handicraft installations have the right to use the money that belongs to them and should be able to withdraw it at any time. Moreover, these installations only need 2.2 dong in capital to produce goods worth 100 dong. Therefore, the bank must create every favorable condition possible for installations to withdraw the cash they need to meet legitimate needs under their plan, such as purchasing raw and finished materials on the free market, providing subsidies and incentives to artisans and handicraftsmen, etc. Supervising the expenditure of cash at production installations is necessary and is part of the function of the bank; however, supervision that is so tight that it causes difficulties and impedes production is unacceptable.

The bank must research and establish a reasonable policy. Increasing the purposes for which cash can be withdrawn, raising the level of cash that can be withdrawn and abolishing unnecessary, complicated procedures are indispensable parts of this policy.

3. The policy on investments and assistance in researching and test manufacturing new products: the material-technical bases of the artisan

and handicraft sector producing consumer goods in Ho Chi Minh City was relatively well developed before liberation day. Generally speaking, however, they are still fragmented, decentralized and imbalanced in many ways because they were formed on the basis of the pursuit of profits and competition. At present, in order to create the conditions for the artisan and handicraft sector to develop upon the strengths that it has in its material-technical bases, it is necessary to continue to invest in new technical equipment. This investment should not only be investment in breadth, investment in the development of new installations, rather, it must first and primarily be investment in depth in order to create a new balance among the various elements and installations of the sector, overcome the present crippled state of production, make better use of existing product[illegible] capacity, create sources of raw materials and improve product quality. As a result, equipping with additional means of experimenting with, [illegible]ing and selecting raw materials and so forth is necessary to instal[illegible]ons, especially leading, large installations. Many installations have adopted plans and been engaged in the research and test manufacture for many years of a number of products of high economic value, such as optical lenses, motorized bicycles, thermostats, etc. However, these plans have now been suspended because of encountering many difficulties with finances, equipment and assistance from related state agencies. These must be considered research projects under state management and policies must be adopted for providing assistance in every respect, including providing appropriate material incentives.

While promulgating a number of policies and regulations governing the artisan and handicraft sector, it is necessary to emphasize the function of state agencies, such as the finance, bank, pricing and other agencies, in providing guidance, inspections and supervision in order to limit the negative aspects and develop upon the positive aspects of production installations in the process of carrying out the state plan, thereby winning for installations the confidence of the various sectors and levels and of consumers.

FOOTNOTES

1. Speech by Le Duan at the 1st Congress of Delegates of the Nam Ha Provincial Party Organization.

2. To gain a clear understanding of this matter, see the article entitled "A Number of Matters Related to the Contract Ordering System" by Nguyen Khe Thuan, NGHIEN CUU KINH TE Journal, No 4-1978.

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LABOR POORLY ORGANIZED AT MACHINE ENTERPRISES

Hanoi NGHIEN CUU KINH TE [ECONOMIC STUDIES] in Vietnamese No 6, Dec 79 pp 29-33

[Article by Ho Ngoc Minh: "Several Matters Regarding Labor Management Within the Machine Enterprises of Ho Chi Minh City"]

[Text] To date, the machine sector in Ho Chi Minh City has been formed primarily by means of reorganizing and merging small, private installations that were once scattered about many different places. Once primarily a repair and assembly industry, the sector is gradually shifting to manufacture. At these enterprises, the majority of workers are newly hired workers who recently graduated from trade training classes, consequently, their skills are weak and they are not proficient in their jobs. The supply of technical materials has involved very many difficulties and generally has not fully met the requirements of production. Machines and equipment are not well matched nor deployed in specialized production lines. The average enterprise has machinery purchased from many different capitalist countries. Besides modern machines, there are more than a few machines left over from the period of French domination.

All of these factors have adversely affected the organization and management of production, including the organization and management of labor.

However, it must also be realized that, in the course of its development, the machine sector in Ho Chi Minh City has basic advantages in its favor. These are the constant concern of the municipal party committee, the municipal people's committee and the Ministry of Engineering and Metals in the planning of the sector and the socialist assistance and cooperation of the machine installations in the same sector, be they central or local installations, state-operated installations, joint public-private installations or cooperatives. If utilized properly, these advantages will have a positive impact upon the various areas of management and create the conditions for labor management to yield increasingly high economic returns.

In the recent past, labor management within the machine enterprises of Ho Chi Minh City has gradually been put on a regular basis and has made certain

positive contributions to the development of the production of installations and the sector. Emulating to work in a highly productive and disciplined manner has become the everyday action of workers at a number of model machine works and become a movement spreading to other enterprises.

However, the labor management at these enterprises is still marked by more than a few shortcomings. Generally speaking, the workers at many enterprises only work about 4 or 5 productive hours per shift and only 12 to 18 days per month. The practice of workers working without quotas, without being required to produce any specific amount at all and without fully complying with technical and labor safety regulations, codes and rules is universal. Labor quotas have not become the basis for tightly managing labor and paying piecework wages. The amount of time lost as a result of workers taking time off for no reason, taking time off and reporting it later and taking time off for personal business annually constitutes about 10 to 12 percent of the required number of mandays, 18 percent at some enterprises. There are many reasons for this situation. Subjectively, emphasis must be placed upon weaknesses in the establishment of production guidelines and production tasks, weaknesses in labor quotas and piecework wages and weaknesses in complying with labor discipline. Herein lie the guidelines for correcting this situation.

1. Establishing Long-Range Production Guidelines and Stabilizing the Yearly Production Tasks of Enterprises

Stabilizing the yearly production task of the enterprise is necessary in order for the enterprise to be able to effectively organize and manage its labor in accordance with the plan. In the recent past, however, the production tasks of many enterprises have not been stable, thereby disrupting production and posing very many difficulties to the management of labor.

Yearly plans generally are not balanced in terms of total output value, primary products, supplies and capital. In many cases, the plans assigned to enterprises only contain total output value norms, not norms on the primary products to be produced. To maintain production, enterprises have frequently had to decide on their own which products to produce and have, as a result, begun producing products of high value, even products not consistent with their primary production task. There have also been more than a few cases in which enterprises have been assigned production tasks and the products they are to produce have been determined but they have still not been able to begin production because they are waiting for supplies or have not had their capital allocation approved; enterprises produce one product one year and another product the next year.

Yearly plans are usually assigned late. Ordinarily, enterprises should receive their plans in October of the preceding year so that they have time to prepare for production and sign contracts; however, some years, many enterprises do not receive their official plan for the entire year until the end of June, consequently, production becomes sluggish and time is spent waiting.

The practice of "taking things easy at the start of the year and working hard at the end of the year" has disrupted labor management and made it passive in nature. The distribution of work, the deployment of workers, labor quotas, the organization supporting working areas and so forth frequently change and do not keep pace with changes in production. Workers waiting for work and passing the time with idle conversation, inaccurate labor quotas, an improper division of labor and deployment of workers and lax labor discipline are the harmful consequences of the problems mentioned above.

As a result, one of the jobs that must be perform is to urgently establish long-range production guidelines and, on this basis, stabilize the yearly production tasks of enterprises.

On the basis of planning it is necessary to establish a division of labor and cooperation in production among the various sectors and between the central level and the local level, establish long-range production guidelines and stabilize the yearly production tasks of enterprises. The various sectors and localities cannot establish long-range production plans in a scientifically based manner when they are not familiar with the overall planning of the entire country and do not have a grasp of the specialized division of labor assigned by the central level to their sector or locality. As long as the problems mentioned above remain unsolved, enterprises will not have a firm basis for scientifically managing labor. This is a conclusion in the nature of a principle.

However, while emphasizing the role played by the central agencies and sectors in the process of participating in the overall planning of the entire country, it is also necessary to criticize the attitude on the part of some localities and installations of relying upon and waiting for a division of labor to be established by the central level instead of fully realizing one's responsibility and making proposals to the central level.

The yearly plans of enterprises are not formulated in a very scientific manner. Man hours and machine hours are not accurately balanced with production tasks due to the failure to fully assess production capacity and establish a progressive, realistic system of economic and technical quotas. For this reason, the everyday supervision of production lacks the firm basis it needs and is imbalanced. This is another reason why the labor management at enterprises is not good.

As a result, it is necessary to heighten the scientific nature of the production plan in order to:

--Balance the factors of production in an effective, flexible and positive manner with a view toward developing the existing potential of the enterprise as much as possible;

--Create favorable conditions for labor management and insure that the enterprise grows in every respect in each planning period: increased labor productivity, reduced production costs, increased accumulation of capital for the state, improved living standards for cadres and workers, etc.

These are the goals and, at the same time, the basic requirements in insuring that the plan is of a highly scientific nature. The effectiveness of labor management at enterprises or in shops and production teams also depends upon these conditions.

2. Insuring the Progressive, Realistic Nature of Labor Quotas

Over the past several years, many enterprises have concerned themselves with establishing a system of economic and technical quotas, including labor quotas. Although this is only the beginning, although these quotas are not very accurate and are still in the process of being perfected, labor quotas have, at a number of enterprises, helped to overcome the difficulties in production.

In actuality, however, many workers still are not working under quotas. At the V.A. Enterprise, work performed under quotas constitutes 35 percent of the total amount of work performed; at the M.K. Enterprise, this figure is 56 percent and, at the Z. Enterprise, 63 percent. Generally speaking, only about 40 percent of the workers at the machine enterprises in Ho Chi Minh City work under quotas.

Many of the quotas that have been established do not meet the requirement of being progressive and realistic. For the most part, quotas are much lower than the actual ability of workers. At the S. Enterprise, workers exceed their quota by 50 to 80 percent in only one-half the standard work day. At some enterprises, labor quotas are used as a "basis" for requesting additional staff and higher wages. As a result of backward quotas, the labor productivity of many enterprises has not increased; the number of productive work hours and mandays is low and the payment of piecework wages is not having a practical impact. Therefore, to insure the progressive and realistic nature of quotas, it is first of all necessary to employ a suitable method for establishing quotas. Depending upon its specific conditions, each enterprise can select one of the following suitable methods: the statistical-empirical method, the comparative-analytical method or the scientifically-technically based method. In the beginning, the enterprise can use the statistical-empirical method or the comparative-analytical method. However, the wasted time caused by the failure to organize production and labor well must be eliminated in the process of formulating and perfecting quotas. Over the long range, it is necessary to restrict the use of and eventually cease using the statistical-empirical method of establishing quotas because this method does not eliminate all inefficiencies and is not firmly based. Enterprises that have stable production tasks and engage in mass production must universally apply the method of formulating scientifically and technically based quotas. This, the most

advanced method, insures the progressive and realistic nature of quotas. However, in order to implement this method, the enterprise must quickly stabilize its technical processes, determine which factors exert the primary influence upon the amount of time needed to perform work and efficiently organize the various stages of work and economic-technical measures in order to properly organize labor at work places, etc.

On this basis, enterprises must broaden the scope of work performed under quotas to insure the all work performed in the production process is governed by a quota. At the start, it will be impossible to avoid difficulties in establishing quotas and introducing them in production because workers do not have a clear understanding of quotas, consequently, they might hold back and not try to meet their quota or inaccurately report the results of their work under quotas; because cadres who set quotas lack organizational experience, etc. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct a pilot project before implementing quotas on an enterprise-wide basis. On the basis of pilot projects, the Vikino and Vinapro Enterprises gradually put the setting of quotas on a regular basis and established quotas for more than 70 percent of their workforce. This stage is immediately followed by the process of observing, supplementing and perfecting quotas. The purpose of this process is to compare and evaluate the ability of workers to meet quotas in order to discover backward quotas, inefficiencies and weaknesses in the organization of implementation and set forth corrective measures. Observing, supplementing and perfecting quotas are the routine jobs of enterprise management cadres, in general, and specialized quota cadres, in particular.

Quotas can be divided into two types depending upon their accuracy: official quotas and temporary quotas. Temporary quotas are newly established quotas that have not been subjected to a full analysis of the various factors affecting the ability of workers to implement them. A plan must be adopted to observe and closely inspect quotas of this type. When economic-technical conditions and the organization of management change, the enterprise must promptly revise its quotas. The process of revising quotas is the process of re-examining management activities and taking steps to improve the organization of production, improve the organization of labor, make technological improvements and rationalize production, the process of gradually raising the quality of quotas.

With this in mind, the observation, supplementation and perfection of quotas must meet the following requirements:

--The spirit of collective ownership of cadres, manual workers and office workers must be tapped in the process of formulating and managing quotas. It must be clearly established that this work is not simply the task of quota cadres, that this work cannot be left up to them. Every cadre, manual worker and office worker must, on the basis of changing his or her thinking, establish his or her responsibility as regards the establishment of quotas. At first, quotas might be less than accurate because the method used

to establish them was unscientific. However, if, in the course of implementation, everyone concerns himself with making a contribution to the establishment of quotas, the quality of quotas will surely be raised and quota cadres will, in this manner, gain experience.

Participation by workers encompasses many areas; however, of utmost importance are positive support of quota cadres when quotas are being established, voluntarily implementing quotas, promptly proposing ways to revise quotas once they become outmoded and keeping accurate records of initial data.

--It is necessary to build a corps of quota cadres who are well versed in their specialized profession and have the ability to organize implementation. The enterprise must clearly establish the function, tasks and authority of the persons performing this work in order to create favorable conditions for them to complete their work well. When technical cadres are shifted to quota work, it is necessary to adopt a plan for providing them with additional training in economics and the establishment of quotas. Quota work should not be assigned to persons who only have a knowledge of economics or to workers who are in poor health and unable to work.

3. Utilizing the Positive Impact of Piecework Wages.

In the recent past, many machine enterprises in Ho Chi Minh City have attached importance to paying piecework wages. At these enterprises, piecework wages have become a form of inspection of the labor productivity and the utilization of work time of the worker, become a lever helping to improve the various areas of organization and management, including labor management. During the first 6 months of 1979, the scope of piecework wages increased by approximately 20 percent compared to 1978. Generally speaking, however, the number of persons receiving piecework wages at the machine enterprises in Ho Chi Minh City is only about 20 to 35 percent of the total number of production workers and piecework wages only equal 20 percent of the total wages paid. At more than a few enterprises, even though they have implemented piecework wages, labor productivity has not increased or has only increased very slowly, workers are only working 3 or 4 productive hours, labor management is lax, etc.

The failure of piecework wages to have their full, positive impact is due, in addition to backward labor quotas, to weaknesses in the organization of production, the organization of labor and the organization of the implementation of piecework wages. Specifically.

--The support of work areas in not well organized. In the work areas of workers paid piecework wages, the following occur on a constant basis: electricity failures, machine breakdowns, a lack of tools and benches, a lack of raw and finished materials and the need to wait for production tasks. On the average, the number of hours that workers must stop production at the M. Z. Enterprise due to the reasons cited above equals

about 20 to 25 percent of regular work time. At the Q. Enterprise, this figure is 40 percent.

--The distribution of work and the deployment of workers at work places are unstable, with low level workers generally assigned high level work or vice versa. The grades of work and the grades of workers are neither accurate nor consistent with each other.

--Statistical work and the recording of initial data on the implementation of piecework wages have not been put on a regular basis and are usually neither prompt or accurate.

As a result, in order to successfully implement piecework wages and, at the same time, raise the progressive, realistic nature of quotas, it is necessary to rapidly correct the problems cited above.

The scientific organization of labor in work areas demands that the enterprise meet the following requirement well:

--There must be an accurate division of labor and an efficient deployment of workers in work areas. Stability must be established in three areas: work, personnel and machinery.

--Work areas must be arranged in the form of efficient production lines that make it easy for workers to work continuously in order to reduce the distance travelled by products and reduce manufacturing time.

--The requirements of workers must be met in a full and well-coordinated manner in order to create the conditions for them to work continuously within their work area.

Enterprises must also implement the workers' system of initial records and strengthen the system of economic information in order to promptly, fully and accurately support the organization and guidance of production and the observation of the implementation of piecework wages.

These requirements demand that workers keep good records on the following two factors after each production shift:

--The number of products produced and the quality of these products;

--The number of work hours lost, the reasons.

Each day, the production section chief must report to the shop supervisor on three factors:

--The quantity and quality of products produced by the section;

--The number of workers and the utilization of their work time;

--Difficulties that must be resolved in the sections' preparations for production.

After 1 day, the shop supervisor must report to the enterprise director on:

--The implementation of the production rate and the synchronization of products;

--The shop's implementation of piecework wages;

--The results of the preparations for production and the difficulties that must be resolved.

In order to obtain good economic information, it is necessary, in addition to educating and motivating workers, to adopt forms of appropriate material incentives so that workers record data accurately, fully and promptly. Coordinating cadres, economic personnel, quota cadres and accountants, in addition to their responsibility of integrating data, also have the task of observing and supervising everyone who has the obligation of performing this work. In order to limit deviations by workers when they are recording data for use in the payment of piecework wages, the enterprise must routinely inspect the production process and the recording of production results by workers.

The principle of distribution in accordance with labor under socialism is: those who work much receive much, those who work little, receive little, those who do not work receive nothing. Society remunerates the worker in a manner consistent with the quantity and quality of labor contributed by the worker to society. In keeping with this principle, piecework wages must have the effect of encouraging the worker to constantly give appropriate attention to increasing the quantity and improving the quality of products because he wants to increase his income. This is also a prerequisite to correctly coordinating the interests of the state with the interests of the collective and the individual worker. However, these types of interests cannot be coordinated in an efficient, stable manner if the enterprise gives light attention to the ideological education of its workers. Giving light attention to this work in the process of paying piecework wages creates the conditions for mistakes, for only being concerned with personal interests while harming the interests of the collective, of society. At more than a few enterprises, due to the low sense of awareness of workers, unwholesome phenomena have developed in the course of implementing the system of piecework wages, such as sloppy work, only giving attention to quantity in order to increase one's income while forgetting about product quality, not wanting to perform difficult work, concealing how much work can actually be performed and being deceitful when keeping records, falsely declaring the quantity of products produced, the number of hours not in production, etc. Until these mistakes are corrected, the positive impact of piecework wages will not be fully realized.

4. Providing Good Elementary and On-the-Job Training and Strengthening Labor Discipline

This area is a weakness that must quickly be corrected. The majority of workers are grade 2 workers who were hired after liberation day. The basic strengths of this corps of workers are that they are young and healthy, have a level II cultural education or have completed 12 years of general school education, are zealous and are closely linked to the new system. Their major weaknesses are their underdeveloped skills and lack of experience. There are not many workers who have 10 years or more experience in their trade; these workers have primarily developed their skills through experience, they are not well versed in theory, they do not have a firm grasp of industrial regulations, they are not skilled in determining what is wrong with machinery, in repairing machinery, etc.

To meet the requirement of developing production, many machine enterprises have opened trade training classes. However, on-the-job training has not yielded high returns because:

--Due to the lack of a uniform trade training program or plan, each enterprise provides training in a different way. For trades with identical technical requirements, the amount of time spent in training at one enterprise is 18 months, but only 12 months at another enterprise;

--There is a lack of equipment and machinery for trainees;

--The corps of specialized instructors is limited in terms of ability and experience;

--Workers place heavy emphasis upon product output while giving light attention to guiding trainees working with them;

--At a number of enterprises, during the final months of the year trainees must temporarily set their training aside in order to quickly complete the plan and are sent to the various shops to work in transportation or support production;

These problems must be corrected under the following guidelines:

--It is necessary to open formal vocational training schools run by the sector management agency in coordination with on-the-job training classes at installations. The corps of instructors must be improved both quantitatively and qualitatively. An appropriate amount of machinery, equipment, means and materials must be allocated to students for practical training and study must be coordinated with practice. Both teaching and learning must be stabilized on the basis of a unified program and plan.

--We must strongly develop the form of training in which skilled workers work beside new workers. An appropriate system of material incentives must be

adopted for skilled workers to participate in training activities. Skill training and testing must become a strong, practical mass movement that yields high economic returns.

--We must compile and issue uniform vocational training cirricula and materials throughout the sector.

While providing good training in order to improve the qualifications and skills of workers, it is necessary to improve labor discipline. This requirement is based on the actual situation at this time: the sense of labor discipline of workers at many enterprises is still low. This is partially due to the remnants of the old system and partially due to loose organization and lax management, as a result of which more than a few workers do as they see fit in production, take time off without reporting it, take time off and report it later, fail to comply with industrial regulations and technical codes, steal materials and products from the factory, perform personal work at the factor, etc.

The strict maintenance of labor discipline requires that the worker implement the various regulations on work time, production discipline and industrial discipline on a self-conscious, voluntary, independent and creative basis. For the purposes of achieving high labor productivity and high work efficiency, workers must truly work, work in an organized, disciplined manner and display the spirit of socialist cooperation in order to successfully complete the state plan assigned to them together.

In order to put the maintenance of labor discipline on a regular basis, enterprises must resolve the following problems well:

--By means of education, motivation and persuasion, they must show workers their obligation and responsibility to strictly maintain labor discipline. However, if deemed necessary, bold administrative action can be taken against persons who routinely violate the code of discipline.

--The observation, inspection and supervision of the maintenance of labor discipline must be intensified under every possible form and on every level of production. The nucleus of this work is the Red Flag Youth Unit.

The maintenance of labor discipline is an element of emulation campaigns and a basis to be used when evaluating and approving promotions, material incentives, etc.

--The enterprise must create favorable material and psychological conditions for workers to maintain strict labor discipline. The worker cannot maintain good labor discipline if there are weaknesses in the organization of production and the organization of labor that constantly pose obstacles, disrupt the order of production and cause production to be unstable.

BIOGRAPHIC

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF TRAN DAI NGHIA

Hanoi TO QUOC in Vietnamese No 1, Jan 80 pp 16-17

[Article: "Two Heroic Intellectuals"]

[Excerpts] The years from 1935 to 1946 were 11 years of secret preparation. Without those years, engineer Tran Dai Nghia would not have been able to make the contributions he did to the war of resistance against the French colonialists.

At age 22, after studying at the Satxolu Loba School in Saigon, Pham Quang Le left for France. Overseas, although his primary purpose was to learn civilian technology, he successfully taught himself the technology of weapons manufacture in order to help fight and drive off the aggressors when he returned home.

There were also times when this Vietnamese student dejectedly sat in the library garden. He was a person who missed his homeland. His father had died and there was no head of the household. His elder, only sister, who diligently cared for his mother, had recently died in a boat accident. It had been several years since he received a letter from his mother. Was she still living at their home in Vinh Long, or had she moved to Saigon?

In September 1946, engineer Pham Quang Le accompanied President Ho back to Vietnam on the sloop Dumont d'Urville of the French Navy, which carried nothing of value except for a ton of books. Also on this trip were Dr. Tran Huu Tuoc and a number of overseas compatriots.

On 20 October 1946, the ship docked in Haiphong. On the following morning in Hanoi, Pham Quang Le met Vo Nguyen Giap, who was slightly more than 30 years of age at the time. Tightly clasping Le's hand, Giap said:

-"We have been awaiting you. We were very happy when we heard that you would be returning with Uncle Ho."

Immediately thereafter, Le went to Thai Nguyen where, together with Ta Quang Buu, he tested American bazooka shells and studied how to manufacture them.

On 5 December 1946, having returned to Hanoi from Thai Nguyen, he was summoned by President Ho:

-"The work I have assigned to you is for the sake of the great cause, consequently, I have given you a new name, Tran Dai Nghia." This alias also had the purpose of protecting him and his relatives in the South.

Since that day, engineer Tran Dai Nghia has held the position of chief of the Weapons Department of the Ministry of National Defense.

One-half month later, the nationwide war of resistance broke out.

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